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Responsibility for Drop-Outs

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THE 1951 Junior College Directory¹ provides information concerning the proportion of freshmen and sophomores enrolled in junior colleges. As has been customary since these tabulations became available,² the freshman class makes up a larger percentage of the total enrollment exclusive of "specials" and "adults." Some idea of this distribution may be obtained from the following tabulation which shows the median, upper quartile, lower quartile, and range of the percentages of sophomores to the total freshmen—sophomore enrollment in public, private, and all junior colleges by states. For comparison, this tabulation was made for the school year 1931-1932 (the earliest available figures) and 1949-1950 (the most recent figures).

One condition which is immediately evident is that sophomores in private junior colleges constitute a larger proportion of the freshman-sophomore enrollment in private junior colleges than sophomores in

public junior colleges. This condition, true in 1931-1932, was even more pronounced in 1949-1950.

Of interest, also, is the fairly static condition of the percentage of sophomores in public junior colleges in 1931-1932 and in 1949-1950. This leads to the possibility that 35 per cent may be an acceptable criterion for measuring the percentage which the sophomores should be in the total freshman-sophomore enrollment.

Several hypotheses are suggested by the tabulation. The private junior colleges exercise a greater holding power on students (higher percentage of sophomores). Public junior colleges are developing more less-than-two-years curriculums. These and other hypotheses need testing, and, if found valid, reasons determined for their existence.

¹Junior College Directory. *Junior College Journal*, XXI (November, 1950), 1st and 2nd tables.

²Successive issues of the *Junior College Directory* from 1931-1951.

	1931-1932			1949-1950		
	Public	Private	All	Public	Private	All
Md	34.1	36.2	35.9	34.2	40.05	37.5
Q ₂	38.2	39.1	38.55	36.85	43.0	42.4
Q ₁	29.35	31.7	31.1	30.6	35.2	32.85
Range	0-47.9	0-47.9	0-47.9	25.1-48.8	0-61.6	0-61.6

A matter of even greater concern, however, is the discovery of reasons for the loss of students between the freshman and sophomore years. Some of this loss, no doubt, is caused by student transfers, or to removal of the student's residence to some other city. However, some of the loss is caused by unsuitability of the educational program of the junior colleges. Concern for the welfare of the individual student justifies investigation of all cases of drop-outs.

The tracing of students who have dropped out of school is no easy task. Quite frequently the student involved is not classified as a drop-out until many weeks after he has ceased attending. This lapse of time contributes materially to the difficulty of the task.

Once the student is located, it is often difficult to learn his true reasons for withdrawal. He may not actually know why he withdrew other than a lack of interest (an explanation which may cover a multitude of reasons), or his reasons for withdrawing may be associated with personal matters which he does not care to discuss. A maximum of ingenuity may be needed to discover the real cause for the withdrawal.

The problem of learning causes for drop-outs is a time-consuming one. Many junior college staffs do not have an opportunity for such activity because of the pressure of other responsibilities. The assignment of one staff member to this

duty is costly, and many junior college budgets are inadequate to permit the additional expenditure required.

The problem of checking up on drop-outs will doubtless be further complicated by the changes in the selective service regulations. These complications will work two ways: (1) the number of male students withdrawing will increase, and (2) the more serious problems associated with the very existence of the junior college will exclude any greater attention to learning why students withdraw.

The answer to the question of why some students drop-out, though, is an important one. The junior college has long prided itself on the individual attention it gives. This claim cannot be justified on a limited basis. It must extend to all individuals enrolled. To dismiss a part of the student body from the consideration imposes an unjustifiable limitation.

Many junior college staffs have studied the problem of drop-outs. In making such studies, these institutions have developed effective techniques for securing the essential information. Perhaps what is now needed is (1) a recognition by all junior college administrators of the importance of this activity, and (2) a sharing through the *Journal* of techniques which have been found successful. These steps might do much to increase even further the services of the junior college to the communities represented.

*The Employer Looks at the Job of the Educator**

WALLACE JAMIE

THE invitation to speak on this occasion came to me at a time when I was particularly discouraged by the dubious quality of the young people presenting themselves for employment.

Carrying with it a tempting license for the lay critic to take pot shots at education, I found myself accepting the bid to speak almost before I realized the full implication of the commitment.

However, I am honestly imbued with the idea that a closer relationship between industry and education would be productive of great good.

It seems that there is too much of an air of self-sufficiency about both education and industry. Aside from an occasional endowment, how much interest does industry take in the problems of education? Surely there is not the close working relationship that there should be.

In inviting me to speak, you are, in effect, inquiring as to whether or not, in my opinion, the business segment of the community approves of the way in which the colleges are meeting the vocational needs of the students.

Actually, I, along with most of my colleagues in the field of personnel administration, think American educators are doing an excellent job. We don't have to look

any further than the American standard of living to document that thesis.

In a European town I visited a few years ago I watched some workmen clearing away the debris of a partially demolished building. They were barefoot. Where we would have used a bulldozer their tool was a shovel. For our huge truck they substituted a wheelbarrow.

A lifetime of toil with his shovel and wheelbarrow would not buy this struggling European the modest automobile which our American laborer takes for granted.

It is American education that we have to thank for our technological superiority, for prospering our free enterprise system, and the ideology of democracy in which we thrive.

At the risk of incurring the wrath of the strong contingent who believe to the contrary, I should like to suggest that at the present time our most convulsing problems are not in the technical field. The very survival of our society in this alarming atomic age may lie in the development of understanding of, and responsibility toward, our fellows. Broad, general education (as

*Editor's Note: This speech was presented by Wallace Jamie, General Personnel Director of the Carnation Company, before the members of the junior college faculties and board of education of the Los Angeles City Schools.

opposed to technical) at the college level, can improve our human relations in industry and on the civic, national and world scenes.

An Oxford professor once defined a technician as "a man who understands everything about his job except its ultimate purpose and its place in the order of the universe."

Business needs technicians. You have given us those—great scientists who have conquered physical nature through chemistry, physics and engineering.

What we need are leaders with a mature capacity for sound, moral judgments. The issues which will confront your graduates when they reach the leadership echelon will not be solely technical, nor even economic, but will involve a determination of fundamental right and wrong.

To the critics who may avidly comment that corporate control has reflected a clear and convincing appreciation of moral issues, and that ethics are a burden, not an asset, to the young man in business, I should like to point out an obvious and too seldom developed fact.

The corporate enterprise by its very nature has a long life. The stake of the individual in our economy is not so great as the stake of the successful, large, modern corporation, for the simple reason that it will be alive longer to profit from the good and to suffer from the bad. Principle rather than shallow expediency, therefore, must motivate its leaders.

Frank Abrams, Chairman of the Board of Directors of the Standard Oil Company of New Jersey, recently said:

"While it is true that no business enterprise can long exist without earning its keep by profit, it is also true that it cannot achieve maximum long-term usefulness—which is another way of saying long-term benefits — without statesmanship, and without a policy of supporting the useful and constructive forces of its time. *Education is one of these forces.*"¹

There is a certain satisfaction in making the point that not all business men are convinced that the whole job of the educator is to develop our young people so that they will be acceptable to the employer alone.

From time to time in the precincts of enterpreneuring, I have heard the idea expounded that the colleges should be dedicated to the task of preparing their students to fit more harmoniously in the *whole of society*. The important point is that, what *business* needs is what our *whole society* needs.

Employers and educators alike must abandon the extraordinary notion that business is a kind of island in our society—separate from it and foreign to it. "What is good for the American people is good for business." Any business which seeks to prosper against the

¹Abrams, Frank. Mimeographed copy of speech released April 10, 1950, at Waldorf Astoria Hotel, New York, at Golden Anniversary of New York University.

public interest cannot look forward to a rosy future.

The notion that you can hurt our industry without hurting the American people is the converse and patently foolish aspect of the same idea.

There are almost four million private enterprises in our country—not including farms; one business for every forty people. Those engaged in industry are not a race apart—they are America. The responsibility of the colleges is not to produce a special species tagged "business man," but rather to develop young people with the intelligence, character and integrity which are so gravely needed today.

The qualities requisite for success in business are the same characteristics which enable a broader, more significant integration into the whole of society.

My comments, while they will *not* in any sense constitute a criticism of the *basic philosophy* of our educational system will, I hope, point up some of the defections in the end-product.

I shall try to point out the qualities and characteristics Carnation and other large employers seek and often fail to find in our collegians.

Early this year the Carnation Company, along with thousands of other companies, began its usual round of the colleges in search of students with a Bachelor's or Master's degree, and students with potential executive ability.

In telling of our recruitment program for executive trainees, I am

ignoring the great bulk of job classifications in which most graduates will be placed. But I think there is good reason for me to slant my discussion in this way, since every collegian entering business has, or should have, the ambition to reach the executive level.

Although we have eight different training programs in the three divisions of Carnation Company—Evaporated Milk, Fresh Milk, and Albers Cereals and Feeds—they are concerned with the three broad subdivisions of sales, production, and various office or staff functions. We undertake eight separate curriculums, however, because of the diversity of activities.

The training programs range in length from six months to two years with an average of about 14 months.

Sales training may be for medical specialists who contact pediatricians in behalf of our evaporated milk, or for animal or poultry husbandry majors who, in years to come, will be supervising the marketing of the one hundred and ten farm feeds produced by our milling division.

On the production side we like to take a careful look at the boys completing their work at such graduate schools of business as Harvard and Stanford for long-range candidates for evaporating plant managers. At the nation's only milling school in Manhattan, Kansas (Kansas State College) we annually seek out future leaders for our milling operations. And at col-

leges like Purdue and California's Davis we find the men slated for ultimate management responsibility in our Fresh Milk Division.

This year we visited thirty-three campuses to interview one thousand students and recruit sixty-three.

We estimate the cost of training the sixty-three men in the 1950 group at over \$300,000, with the most substantial part accounted for as direct salaries. Cost of instruction and supervision is far from nominal and the expense of the recruitment program itself is not a negligible item. Our turnover in the student training programs is relatively low, even in these hectic days of involuntary recalls and disruptive drafts.

My point in telling you this is to show you why and how much it matters to us in industry, what kind of a preparatory job you as instructors in the colleges do.

In my own pilgrimage which began at Harvard, Yale, Pennsylvania and Cornell this year and ended at Berkeley, UCLA, Pomona, and U.S.C., I talked with scores of fellow searchers, and I confirmed an impression which has been developing in my thinking for some years. Whether the recruiter is looking for a prospective Vice-President in Charge of Fig Newtons or a research director for a marine laboratory, he is likely to be seeking certain identical traits of personality, character, and ability.

Within our own organization,

where the directions for development run the broad gamut from dog-food-marketing-specialist to office-management-trainee, we seek common characteristics for the men slated for training in all areas.

In anticipation of covering this topic I have been cross-examining my colleagues in the personnel field to learn what it is that makes the collegiate job-seeker more desirable; to discover what there may be within him which gives promise of sound performance and good growth, and, most important of all, whether or not these qualities can be developed during the undergraduate experience.

It is interesting that the responses I have received were strikingly similar, and it is important that most personnel directors feel that the job the colleges do can make the difference between success and failure for the student when he enters business.

There is one trait that looms larger than all the rest—one which, perhaps, encompasses many or most of the others—the vital quality of *maturity*.

Dr. Robert N. McMurphy, Chicago Business Psychologist, conducted a study of 1,767 trainees hired from colleges by 247 companies. He found that of this number only 58 per cent had been judged suitable at the end of their first year of employment. Dr. McMurphy's case-studies convinced him that the 42 per cent mortality stemmed from the single cause, im-

maturity. Immaturity, he, and we, have found, is manifested in part by:

Inability to get along with people,
Inability to accept responsibility,
Lack of perseverance and self-reliance,
Inability to evince authority without officiousness,

Too much impatience to stay on the job long enough to give the Company a fair return on its training investment,

An exaggerated impression of self-importance, and

Failure to identify personal goals with those of the firm.

For the last few years companies with college recruitment programs have been "spoiled" by the abundant availability of the seasoned "GI species of graduate." These chaps, normally in their late twenties, often with a wife and sometimes a family to give them stability, and to motivate them to extra effort, have constituted a magnificent bumper crop for the industrial harvesters, a crop which makes the normal graduates look even more pink-cheeked and wet-behind-the-ears than they actually are.

Chronological age is not necessarily the prized commodity. It's more a state of mind, a degree of emotional and social adjustment which is so avidly sought, and it's the absence of this adjustment which so often foreshadows doom for the business recruit.

According to a research study described recently by Dr. Kenneth W. McFarland, Superintendent of Schools of Topeka, Kansas, people are fired because they are:

Lazy,
Irresponsible,
Disloyal,
Dishonest,
Immoral,
Intemperate,
Have poor judgment,
Use poor English,
Have poor personality,
Or, are chronic complainers.*

If, as Dr. McFarland claims, nine-tenths of all persons fail in business because of personality faults rather than lack of technical knowledge or skill, the inference is inevitable that there should be more emphasis on character development and a little less on vocational training.

We live at a time that makes normal living exceedingly difficult for the young. Commercial entertainment is too abundant, too stimulating and too artificial. The absence of simple family patterns and the difficulty of giving responsibility to teen-agers hinders their normal development of interest and personality. You, as instructors, are combating not only the usual vagaries of adolescence, but are fighting an environment which destroys initiative, independence and intellectual resourcefulness — everything creative. From young people exposed to television, radio, movies, comics and picture magazines, teachers naturally find it harder to produce the reflective, sober and well-rounded individuals business demands.

In many instances inspired and consecrated teachers are surmount-

*McFarland, Kenneth W. *Los Angeles Times* news story of a speech made at the Wilshire EBEL Theatre in 1950.

ing obstacles of this type through the sheer force of their own convictions, and the clarity of their goals.

Our own observation is that we rarely "flunk out" any of our trainees for failure in the information areas. In general, they seem to possess the specific knowledge needed. If some information is missing, the need can be met by reasonable application. Not so if the lack is more basic—if the problem, for example, is inability to analyze, or to cooperate, to assume responsibility, or to judge people.

This brings us to the importance of *general education*, wherein the emphasis is not on present and immediate problems, but seeks to provide inner growth from which will come principles useful for solving problems that may as yet be unforeseen. General education points out the value of appreciation. It shows that growth is emotional as well as intellectual. General education is complementary to, but different in emphasis and approach from, special training for a job.³

In the Preliminary Report on UCLA's Summer Workshop on General Education in California Junior Colleges, certain specific objectives of general education were listed. These included programs to help each student increase his competence.

³"Problems and Proposals Concerning General Education in California Junior Colleges." A preliminary Report by the Summer Workshop of the California Study of General Education in the Junior College. June 26-August 4, 1950. 22

⁴Ibid., 24.

In expressing his thoughts clearly in speaking and writing, and in reading and listening with understanding,

In using the basic mathematical and mechanical skills necessary in everyday life,

In using methods of critical thinking for the solution of problems and for discrimination among values,

In developing a balanced personal and social adjustment, and

In developing a set of sound moral and spiritual values.⁴

These should be your objectives. What *technical* competence is not present can usually be developed on the job. The ability to *think* seldom can be.

When business finds a chap who can think and is especially competent in these areas, he is likely to be destined for executive responsibility. In the case of the administrator, however, there must be also an abundance of solid on-the-job experience. To develop, in impressive measure, that cherished maturity about which we spoke, *time must pass*.

Nothing is so damaging to the case of the youthful applicant, as for the interviewer to get the notion that the job seeker thinks there is a short-cut to the administrative assignment.

Now I would like to turn to some of the ways in which a progressive personnel department goes about trying to recruit people who possess these qualifications.

In order to be as concrete as possible, I should like to make further reference to our own Company's

procedure. (I may say that the technique I shall describe is by no means peculiar to Carnation, but is in use, in slightly varying form, by scores of the thousands of firms engaged in college recruitment.)

Here is how we will hire our 1951 crop of executive trainees.

Five or six weeks in advance of our first campus visits our General Personnel Department will send a supply of Carnation application forms to the Placement Directors of schools on our itinerary. We will also provide those officials with detailed specifications for the types of individuals we will be seeking to employ.

The placement officers will be asked to make the forms available to students who, in their opinion, meet the requirements outlined.

When our department receives these forms we will "weight" them and evaluate them, and will again write the colleges asking the Placement Bureau to administer a simple battery of tests to applicants whose forms pass the preliminary review.

Upon our receipt of the test batteries, further eliminations will be made and students whose applications still appear interesting will be identified by us to the college placement office with a request for an appointment for a campus interview.

Thus a hundred men at Iowa State who may look "good" to the Placement Department there in the light of Carnation's specifications, may be reduced to twenty before

our interviewer reaches the college. He will be somewhat acquainted through the test and application form with each applicant even before meeting the student, and will be prepared to make the best use of the time.

Of the men interviewed on the campuses a few will be selected for final consideration, and our department heads and their associates will undertake multiple interviews with these candidates either at the school or, at our expense, at our office. Our experience is that we interview between ten and twenty students for each trainee hired.

It may be of interest to you to hear how we—and other employers who follow the standard *modus operandi*—make the appraisals.

The first hurdle is the "weighting" of the application forms.

With the help of our psychological consultants, and leaning on the experience of business as a whole, we assign specific weights to certain responses on our four-page application blank. For example—whether you agree or not—it is an established fact that an only child may tend to be less well adjusted than one with brothers and sisters, and may be less stable in the business setting. Under our plan, such an applicant is assigned a "minus one" for that response. And so it is for each of the answers for which it can be shown there is any correlation with success-on-the-job.

Health, marital status, education, work experience, military experi-

ence and any number of other background factors are roughly evaluated by this system. Values are assigned in such a way, however, that unless the applicant were *very obviously* unsuited for the opening he would not be eliminated.

The next hurdle for the candidate is the test battery. At this point, not having met the applicant, we make no pretense at administering a full battery. Our "preliminary packet" for '51 will probably include only three single tests. One will gauge *interest*, to help assure that there will be no termination due to boredom with the job. The second will provide some clue concerning personality factors, since, as we have seen, these loom so large in hindering all-out progress. The third test may be one to gauge verbal comprehension. It is interesting that in one of the divisions of Carnation there is a particularly high correlation between successful performance on the job and a high record on the Michigan Vocabulary Test.

Many remarkable stories are told about the value of psychological techniques in the selection situation.

Needing a new secretary, a firm's president decided to have applicants judged by a psychologist. Three girls were interviewed together. "What do two and two make?" the psychologist asked the first. "Four," was the prompt answer. To the same question the second girl replied: "It might be 22." The third girl answered: "It might be 22 and it might be four." When the girls had left the room, the psychologist turned triumphantly to the president. "There," he said, "that's what

psychology does. The first girl said the obvious thing. The second smelled a rat. The third was going to have it both ways. Now, which girl will you have?" The president did not hesitate. "I'll have the blonde with the blue eyes," he said.

I want it understood, of course, that at Carnation we're much more objective about these things.

Having cleared the first two hurdles, the weighted application form and the preliminary tests, the collegian who wants to enter the milk business is scheduled for an interview which is informal and generally takes about half an hour. In these interviews, if we are talking to a wanted graduate, we must do something of a sales job for our Company. Top men in the senior classes at some of the larger colleges often receive as many as twenty-five job offers. On the other hand, it is obvious that we must not *oversell* the applicant, since to do so would only assure subsequent expensive separation. The "top" men are not necessarily those with the best scholastic records. In line with my thesis that personality factors are a paramount concern, temperament, interests, activities, and many other considerations all figure in identifying the "top" men.

An M.I.T. study⁵ of what segments of the class made *Who's Who in America* and *Who's Who in Engineering* proved that even in the case of technical people, the

⁵Reported in "College Recruiting" a pamphlet reprint from: Boynton, Paul W. *Selecting the New Employee*. New York: Harper and Brothers. Original study made in 1933 by F. Alexander Magoun of Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

boys in the "bottom tenth" of the class are not badly off. Twenty-two per cent of the lowest decile made the American *Who's Who* as against fifteen per cent from the top tenth. Of those who achieved *engineering* distinction, sixteen per cent were from the top group and fourteen per cent from the bottom.

One conclusion is safe: academic achievement is not necessarily proof of ability to work face to face with other people in ordinary business situations.

Before the last interviews, the candidate's school and work records and personal and business references are investigated.

The interviewer will attempt to "certify" for final selection by the department concerned, two or three men deemed qualified for each available billet. Then, usually a few weeks after the campus contact and following a series of final interviews, the final selection is made.

School grades, extra-curricular activities, particularly group activities where leadership may be manifested, summertime and full-time jobs, foreign travel, language abilities, an intelligent reading program, good progress in the military—all of these elements enter the consideration of most college recruiters. Depending upon whether or not a future comptroller, or a potential sales manager is sought, these features are given emphasis.

Questions we ask ourselves in evaluating a specific applicant run something like this:

Does the applicant's work history indi-

cate a capacity to work steadily and systematically?

Does his work history indicate that he has grown in effectiveness with each change of position?

Does his work history indicate leadership potential?

Has the applicant's experience been such as to make him appreciate the necessity of work?

Do you have the impression that the applicant has matured socially and emotionally?

Does he have a definite vocational goal?

Is the applicant well-motivated for the position for which he is being considered?

Does he possess the ability to be critically self-analytical?

Considering the applicant's personality, and his work, social and economic history, does he seem to be stable and dependable?

Experience is consistently regarded by employers as highly important. The collegian who can report a diversity of jobs, even summer and part-time assignments, has a head-start over the social hound who spent his summers indolently.

Sometimes, however, too much emphasis is placed upon experience, when extended experience is viewed as indicating greater value. Four years' experience in selling encyclopedias is probably of no more value than two years' work in that field.

Mental ability is sometimes considered one of the important factors

*The Personnel Institute's "Diagnostic Interviewer's Guide." New York.

in selection. It may mean ability in abstract thinking, or, sometimes, the phrase is used synonymously with intelligence. For executive trainee billets this is a prime criterion. But a common error in the selection process is to construe that all positions require a high level of intelligence. Nothing can more surely guarantee turnover than to employ a candidate with high abstract intelligence for a task that challenges only a fraction of his mental ability.

That education is a valid factor in selection was proved recently by a Los Angeles insurance concern. This organization was seeking to discover how closely performance-on-the-job paralleled the high school work record. As would be expected there was a very high correlation between school and business records of attendance, deportment and general effectiveness.

In the interest of developing young people who will be more easily assimilated by business, I should like to point out one problem that gives personnel workers much concern.

A study⁷ in eastern urban areas revealed that more than eighty per cent of the secondary school pupils are preparing for careers involving only ten per cent of the available occupations. Fewer than one out of every four colleges provides guidance to a student as he pursues his undergraduate program, and only two in ten offer a job readjustment

service to their alumni. I think southern California schools and colleges are a little ahead of institutions in the East in this respect, but even in the West an inordinate number of graduates have their minds immovably fixed on a career in personnel or advertising.

Students who determine upon a profession which involves graduate training should begin thinking about requirements in their sophomore or junior year and should design their curriculums to meet particular needs. High school and junior college people should be tested for aptitudes, interests and personality traits, and guided early in the direction of their fortes—toward a balanced and responsible maturity.

I have talked to hundreds of graduates who greatly regretted having deferred career consultation until the last semester of the senior year. Effective student counseling, business-conscious guidance, must be a prime concern.

In the role of the business man taking pot shots at our education system, I would be missing a bet if I failed to devote a minute or two to the important question of how *much* education there should be, and for *how many*.

Recently the General Manager of the Civil Service Department of Los Angeles, the University Examiner of the University of Southern California, and I expatiated on the moot subject on the radio. Actually, we were discussing a book just published by a Harvard Economics

⁷Contained in a report of a study made by the Placement Office of Wilkes College, Wilkes Boone, Pennsylvania, 1949.

professor named Seymour Harris.

This author talks about the "proletariat of the A.B. degree" which is in process of formation. He discusses the general apprehension that by 1969 there will be two or three college graduates for every job commensurate with their education. On all sides we hear what drastic political, economic and sociological consequences this problem may engender.

In 1940 this country had three million college graduates; in 1950 four and one-half million, and, by 1968, it is estimated there will be ten to fifteen million. We are told we are heading toward an eventual college graduate population of thirty million, not including twenty million with *junior* college diplomas.

Medicine, teaching, law, engineering and the other professions will not be able to absorb this number.

Speaking for myself, I'm not fearful that we shall develop a frustrated intelligentsia with accompanying political and social tensions, if the relation between the college population and the labor market becomes more distorted.

It is my belief that there should be more emphasis on the non-economic aspects of education. It is the people who feel that the colleges are primarily for vocational training who are the alarmists on this subject. If our young people learn to *think*, and learn that materialistic objectives should not be primary in our experience—if they learn

tolerance for the viewpoints of their fellows and achieve understanding of the history, motivations and proper destiny of the peoples of the world, then education will have become a prime force in maintaining peace in the atomic era.

I cannot somehow bring myself entirely to agree with Canon Bernard Bell, who wrote in *Life* magazine recently:

..... we are producing—at great expense and with the most incongruous self congratulation—a nation of Henry Aldriches.³

It is easier for me to go along with Canon Bell's claim that education is reluctant to insist upon those "formative disciplines which, alone, can promise proficiency in doing and thinking."

..... youth are unchallenged in the impression that one may eat one's cake and have it too, that there can be reward without quest, wages without work, a master's prestige without a master's skill, marriage without fidelity, national security without individual sacrifice.³

Through the generations, education has been the strong force, along with religion, to help us live fuller, more satisfying and more effective lives. *General* education has never been so important as it is today.

The "Preliminary Report by the Summer Workshop of the California Study of General Education in the Junior College," just released, contains this timely warning:

If your civilization is to survive as you and I know it, we must solve the

³Bell, Bernard I. "Know How vs Know Why." *Life*, XXIX (October 16, 1950), 89.
³Ibid., 98.

problem of distributing man's goods to the end that food will not be destroyed to maintain an artificial scarcity while millions are under-nourished and starving for want of food; we must press toward a socially desirable use of the leisure time technology has granted us; we must face and solve the problems of human relations on the personal, national, and international fronts; and we must lead individuals to the recognition and achievement of high values to live by.¹⁰

It is less than realistic to deny that we are faced, today, with a world-wide crisis; that we are "living a decisive moment in human history."

The President's Commission on Higher Education wrote:

In a real sense the future of our civili-

¹⁰"Problems and Proposals Concerning General Education in California Junior Colleges." (June 26-August 4, 1950), 18.

¹¹Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education, I (1947), 6-7, 21.

zation depends on the direction education takes, not just in the distant future, but in the days immediately ahead We need to experiment boldly in the whole area of human relations We must bring our social skills quickly abreast of our skills in natural science.¹¹

In an important way the characteristics which I have described as vital to success-on-the-job in *business*, are the same qualities which are necessary to success-on-the-job each one holds in the broader scheme of things.

The maturity for which industry cries is the same maturity which gives us an understanding of our fellow men. The symptoms of *immaturity* are the same deficiencies which, on the world scene, could precipitate conflict and destruction.

Classroom Utilization on an Overcrowded Campus

JOHN LOMBARDI and CHARLES W. TRIGG

THE enrollment in daytime classes at Los Angeles City College increased from 2,910 in 1944 to 9,346 in the spring of 1948 and leveled off to 7,868 in the spring of 1950. This postwar surge of students placed a tremendous strain on the existing physical facilities of the college. Some relief was obtained through continuous construction of temporary bungalow-type buildings during this period until 76 more rooms of classroom size were obtained.

However, the housing problem was further complicated by a legislative action in 1947 whereby the Los Angeles State College was authorized to establish an upper division on the City College campus. State college enrollment more than compensated for the leveling off of City College enrollment so that the combined enrollment was never less than 9,300. This State College enrollment made proportionately greater demands on classrooms since its upper division classes were generally smaller in size.

As the enrollment increased the service functions, library, audio-visual center, storage, faculty offices and administrative offices encroached on available space. Moreover, since the State College was established as a separate institution and not integrated with the

City College, separate administrative offices were required for its proper function. To meet these needs, classrooms were converted into offices.

Other factors operated to increase pressure on classroom facilities. Students were carrying a larger average number of semester hours, and were staying in school longer than formerly — the G.I.'s because they were subsidized by the Federal government, the non-veterans because the presence of an upper division on the campus provided them with an incentive to continue school.

As the demand for classroom facilities increased and a larger percentage utilization was achieved, some extra-classroom educational activities were of necessity curtailed due to lack of available meeting places. Also faculty and departmental meetings were difficult to schedule, for at every hour many instructors were in class.

It became evident to the administration that the increasing enrollment required a re-examination of the method of scheduling classes. Study of classroom utilization showed that classrooms were used more efficiently between 9 A.M. and 1 P.M. on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday than on Tuesday and Thursday or during the afternoon hours. Some of the factors contrib-

uting to this condition were: (1) an excess of 3-hour classes over 5-hour and 2-hour classes; (2) the tradition of scheduling 3-hour classes hourly on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday; (3) preference of faculty and students for the morning hours—the faculty because of the belief that students responded better in the morning and the students because jobs were more plentiful in the afternoons.

Since it was not feasible or educationally sound to organize more 2-hour classes to meet the exigencies of a room schedule, 3-hour classes were scheduled on Tuesday and Thursday with a 2-hour consecutive period on one of the days. Changes were also made which increased the use of laboratory and other specialized types of classrooms. Especially productive was the practice of scheduling a class for 2-hour periods on MWF rather than for 3-hour periods on MW. Another change along the same lines, utilizing two rooms, scheduled classes on MW, WF, and MF, thus scheduling three sections where only two MW sections had been scheduled previously.

While the bungalows were being constructed, the demand for additional classrooms was met by scheduling regular classes at 4 P.M., 5 P.M., and 6 P.M., and a few classes later in the evening. As more rooms became available the

number of sections in the late afternoon was gradually reduced.

To determine the efficiency of classroom utilization a survey was made of all rooms available from 8 A.M. to 4 P.M. Monday through Friday. During the spring 1950 semester, of the 191 classrooms available for instructional purposes, 132 were classified as lecture or non-specialized rooms and 59 were classified as special purpose rooms, such as chemistry, physics, bacteriology, art, ceramics, and weaving laboratories. Rooms that could be used for lectures, even though designed as laboratories were classified as lecture rooms. Rooms not available for use except for the purposes for which they were designed were placed in the special purpose category. Percentage utilization was determined by dividing the number of hours the rooms were used during the week by the total number of hours available for use, namely 40. If a room was in use for 24 hours during the week, the percentage utilization was 60.

Percentage utilization was obtained for three categories—lectures, special purpose, and all. Table I shows the percentage utilization in all three categories for each hour of the day and the average percentage of utilization for the day.

In considering normal classroom utilization, it was discovered that there is "almost complete absence of generally accepted norms for evaluating space utilization."¹ Dr.

¹Hollis, Ernest V. and Associates. *College Building Needs*, Federal Security Agency—Office of Education, Special Series No. 1, (1949), 44.

TABLE I

CLASSROOM UTILIZATION (%) AT LOS ANGELES CITY COLLEGE AND LOS ANGELES STATE COLLEGE OF APPLIED ARTS AND SCIENCES, SPRING SEMESTER 1950

ROOM TYPE	CLASS MEETING TIME								
	8	9	10	11	12	1	2	3	Average
132 Lecture	77	91	92	89	79	78	61	33	75
59 Special Purpose	37	59	64	45	22	56	55	38	47
191 Classrooms	64	81	83	76	62	71	59	35	67

Strayer² in his California survey of 1948 established an overall classroom utilization equal to 65 per cent of all instructional rooms available in a 45-hour week. Later, in his University system of Georgia Survey,³ he fixed separate norms for specialized and non-specialized rooms. For specialized rooms the normal level of use was placed at from 40 to 59 per cent, while for non-specialized rooms it was placed at from 60 to 69 per cent. A Maryland survey group⁴ reported "that a room-period utilization of 50 per cent can ordinarily be attained without crowding of facilities or excessive complication of class scheduling"

In the absence of generally accepted norms, a comparison was made of the percentage of utilization of the City College facilities with some readily available data at other institutions. This comparison is presented in Table II. Since the types of rooms included in the studies conducted at other institutions was not always evident, data are given for both lecture rooms and for all rooms at City-State Colleges.

A third and more illuminating comparison was made hour for hour

²*Digest of a Report of a Survey of the Needs of California in Higher Education.* University of California Press (1948), 17-19.

³*A Digest of a Report of a Survey of the University System of Georgia.* Atlanta, Georgia (1949), 52.

⁴American Council on Education. *Higher Education in Maryland.* (1947), 245-247.

TABLE II

COMPARISON OF ROOM UTILIZATION AT VARIOUS INSTITUTIONS⁵

Institution	No. of Rooms	Year Studied	Percentage Utilization
L.A.C.C. — L.A.S.C. (all)	191	1950	67
L.A.C.C. — L.A.S.C. (lecture)	132	1950	75
University of Wisconsin	155	1946	73
University of Florida	—	1947	66
Ohio State University	221	1948	64
University of Chicago	95	1931	59
11 California State Colleges, Universities	—	1947	52
22 Colleges (U.S.A.)	—	1930	45
21 Methodist Colleges	—	1932	36

⁵Based upon data in *College Building Needs*, op. cit., 38-39.

TABLE III

COMPARISON OF LECTURE ROOM UTILIZATION (%) AT L.A.C.C. — L.A.S.C.
(SPRING 1950) WITH OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY (WINTER 1948)

	CLASS MEETING TIME								
	8	9	10	11	12	1	2	3	<i>Average</i>
L.A.C.C. — L.A.S.C. (132 rooms)	77	91	92	89	79	78	61	33	75
Ohio State University (221 rooms)	65	71	72	64	45	68	65	61	64

with the classroom utilization at Ohio State University. A glance at Table III will show that classrooms are more uniformly used throughout the day at Ohio State University, where the low point occurs at noon in contrast to a low at 3 P.M. at City-State Colleges.

The survey of classroom utilization has served many useful purposes. Foremost among these is the growing awareness of administrative difficulties in scheduling classes by departmental chairmen who realized that it is not possible to

expand their offerings at the 9, 10, and 11 o'clock hours without curtailing the offerings of some other department. Some have revised their fall 1950 semester schedules to provide more 2 P.M. and 3 P.M. classes. Others have appointed departmental committees to prepare more evenly distributed schedules. The survey made patent to the Los Angeles City Board of Education the need for comprehensive survey of the building situation and for a long range new building program.

Geography and General Education: A Junior College View

MEYER WEINBERG

GENERAL education on the junior college level has almost by-passed the study of geography. In fact, American collegiate education as a whole shares in this disregard.

The reasons lie with the widespread treatment of geography as a highly technical member of the physical sciences, the serious shortage of professionally-trained geographers, particularly on the junior college level¹, and widespread disagreement on the nature of geography. The culprit is a conspiracy of circumstances rather than a deliberate policy of exclusion.

A recent report on general education sets for the social sciences no less a task than "the production of individuals who understand modern society and are able to act effectively in response to the problems of public policy which will confront them."² In this context, geography has a considerable role to play along the lines of necessary knowledge.

In general education geography aims primarily at:

1. Developing an understanding of the interplay between man and nature. It deals with the strivings of man within and against the limitations of his physical environment, and his successes in changing these limitations. This understanding is indispensable to a realistic understanding of modern society.
2. Cultivating the ability to con-

ceive of international problems in concrete terms of differing values, societies, economies, and histories. The first requirement for intelligent thought about public policy is to shed all one's stereotypes. No field is more heavily populated with these than foreign policy. How many students still approach China with a mental picture of tongs and gongs?

A separate course in geography may be introduced into the junior college or geography material could be integrated into existing courses. In either case, however, it is clear that general education objectives can best be attained by placing geography within departments of social science³ since physical scientists understandably tend to convert geography into applied physics or geology. While this approach is certainly adequate for future geographers, it is highly inappropriate for future citizens.

The following is based on a course in World Geography taught at Wright Junior College by the writer for the past three years.

After having established course objectives, the problem of subject-matter remained. For virtually

¹See Leonard V. Koos, "Junior College Teachers: Subjects Taught and Specialized Preparation," *Junior College Journal*, XVIII (December, 1947), Table 7, p. 207.

²Albert W. Levi, *General Education in the Social Studies*, American Council on Education: Washington, D. C.: 1948. p. 219.

³See Isalah Bowman, *Geography in Relation to the Social Sciences*. Scribner's: New York, 1934.

every student this constituted their only college course in geography. It had to be, therefore, not simply an "introductory" course, but a "concluding" one as well. This fact was of cardinal importance in formulating the following generalized course outline:

- I. Geography and human affairs
- II. Elements of geography: world patterns
 - A. The earth
 - B. The natural resource
 - C. The human resource
- III. The world at work: world patterns
 - A. Agriculture
 - B. Manufacture
 - C. Trade and communication
- IV. The world as political-economic regions
 - A. U.S.
 - B. U.S.S.R.
 - C. China
- V. European recovery: a current problem in political-economic geography
- VI. Atomic energy: a current and developing problem in political-economic geography

Throughout the course, the theme recurred: geography is an important factor in helping us make our way through difficult problems of world-importance.

Further comment on the outline might be offered in the way of rationale. It was felt, for example, that "Elements of geography" and "The world at work" would have to suffer most from compression and selection. Thus, while physical elements were not given compre-

hensive attention, their importance was stressed concretely at various points in subsequent sections. The section, "The world as political-economic regions," was drawn up in the feeling that the customary encyclopedic, touch-and-go world survey would leave little except superficialities with the student. By the inclusion of "European recovery," it was hoped to impress the student with the direct utility of geography in understanding some of the bases of fundamental problems in world politics.

Even more so was this the case for "Atomic energy⁴." It was examined from the points of view of: (1) a technological advance whereby man had learned further to control nature; (2) occurrence and availability of fissionable raw materials; (3) the economic significance of a new source of energy; and (4) its impact on world politics. A member of the physical science department was called in to explain the scientific intricacies. Reading materials were at a minimum, but movies proved helpful.

The greatest teaching problem of the course was finding an appropriate textbook.⁵ Textbook writers and publishers still persist in producing material primarily within the framework of high school-senior college dualism rather than accepting the conception of junior colleges as a synthesis of both elements.

Major volumes, written by university geographers, are slanted towards an introduction to the

⁴For an example of the approach and references used, see the present writer's "Peaceful Aspects of Atomic Energy," *Chicago Schools Journal*, XXXI (May-June, 1950), 249-53.

⁵There was not, of course, any hope of finding text material on atomic energy.

specialized study of geography. That this conception is of limited value when applied to the junior college is obvious when one considers the large numbers of terminal students on this level. What is needed are texts designed to introduce students to a world in need of geographic knowledge, rather than introducing them to a first course in a specialized discipline.

What with the serious shortage of qualified teaching personnel in this field, and the usual difficulties surrounding the introduction of additional courses, it might be preferable to think in terms of alternatives.

Such an alternative involves consideration of geographic material in courses already offered, such as history, political science,

economics, and sociology. Most strategic, however, is the general social science course, especially where it is required of every student. This kind of course generally has a large enrollment and thereby offers the opportunity of reaching the maximum number of students. It is difficult to regard such a general course as well-conceived without some attention at several points to geography.

The needs and situation of each institution will condition the final choice as between a special geography course or an integrated course.⁶

⁶Some of the considerations involved in such a choice are highlighted in Clyde F. Kohn (ed.), *Geographic Approaches to Social Education*, National Council for the Social Studies: Washington, D. C., 1948; and S. V. Martorana, "General Education for International Understanding," *Junior College Journal*, XX (November, 1949), 128.

A Survey of the Services Performed by The Libraries of the Junior Colleges Of Washington in the Field of Audio-Visual Materials

EDGAR R. LARSON

DURING the years just preceding World War II the use of audio-visual materials began to receive greater attention in the colleges throughout the country.¹ The emphasis placed on this type of instructional material by the Army and Navy during the war and the results obtained created a tremendous impetus in the audio-visual field in civilian education, especially at the higher levels. Now many colleges are pursuing, with much enthusiasm, an effective audio-visual program. For the most part each college has set its own directions and its own patterns in accordance with its peculiar organization, objectives, and problems.

The same is true, within certain limits, of the junior colleges of the state of Washington. However, they are all younger than the audio-visual movement itself, and have developed simultaneously with audio-visual materials and the educational film. The two largest of the public junior colleges were established as recently as 1941. One would anticipate, then, that the Washington junior college audio-visual programs have not de-

veloped to the same extent as those of the longer-established colleges.

To determine the variety and extent of the services in the audio-visual field being performed by the libraries or other departments of the nine public junior colleges of Washington, the writer made a questionnaire study.

Completed or partially completed replies were received from five schools and two were visited, making a total of seven schools for which data has been made available. As a basis for comparison, questionnaires were also sent to a number of out-of-state junior colleges. However, except for three exceptional replies from rather unique schools, the response was too meager to be valuable for other than individual examples.

The questionnaire was divided into five sections: Administration; Organization; Equipment and Materials; Services; Problems, Plans, and Projects. Only one questionnaire was returned completely filled out. However, full information was secured from the two schools which were visited.

Because of the small number of institutions involved, no sampling was required, and for the same reason the data compiled do not

¹Lemler, Fred L. "The University or College Film Library." *Film and Education* (G. M. Elliot, Editor). New York: Philosophical Library, 1948. 502-504.

lend themselves readily in most cases to tabulation, graphing or other statistical representation. In most instances a better picture can be given, and more readily, by a mere statement of the facts as they are revealed by the answers to the questionnaire.

It is well to bear in mind that the 1948-49 enrollments for the seven junior colleges ranged from 138 to 630², not including part-time students; the median was 312.

Administration and Organization. Under the section entitled Administration, the first question asked concerned the unit or division of the college administering audio-visual materials. As expected, there was great variety in the replies. The following divisions are represented:

1. Library (three schools, one jointly with the college office)
2. County Materials Bureau
3. Department of Photography
4. Audio-Visual Director of School District

One reply indicated that there was no division of the school handling the administration of the audio-visual program.

Apparently all but one of the junior colleges have recognized that it is essential that one person be held responsible for the audio-visual program,³ according to responses on the questionnaire. These persons included two librarians, a photography instructor, a physical science instructor, a history instructor, and a college representative (apparently to the county materials bureau). It would seem

that the responsibility for the audio-visual program within the college administration is a matter of chance, somewhat akin to former high school teaching assignments. This is unfortunate in light of Lemler's statement that "The personnel in charge of the visual program is considerably more important than materials and equipment."⁴ If any tendency is suggested by the findings of the questionnaire, it is toward the administration of the program under the college library, with the librarian acting in the capacity of director.

The time spent by the person responsible in administering the audio-visual program varied from one hour a week to one-fourth of the person's time. The average time spent, excluding those not reporting on this item, was roughly five hours a week.

In the matter of assistants there was also great variation, from no assistants (in three colleges) to six part-time assistants (including the librarian's secretary, the head of the photography department, and four student projectionists). One college reported one part-time

²Washington Educational Directory. Washington State Education Department, 1949-1950. 237-239.

³The junior college having no individual responsible for the audio-visual program is not the same one indicating no administrative unit for audio-visual materials. In other words, all colleges reporting have some type of audio-visual administration.

⁴Lemler, Fred L. "How Can We Bring About Better Utilization of Visual Materials?" *Educational Screen*, XX (April, 1941), 154.

assistant, one reported two, and one gave no reply. Of course, this does not take into account the variety of administrative set-ups, in many of which most of the work is done outside the college itself.

The first item of the questionnaire on which there was almost perfect agreement concerned the audio-visual faculty committee. Only one college had such a committee. This one acknowledged two committees, "one for requisition of films according to faculty preference; the other responsible for equipment and operation."

According to answers received from the seven junior colleges there is no type of investigation completed or under way for the purpose of determining the effectiveness of special audio-visual materials in improving instruction. At one college where a personal interview was conducted, it was learned that the person responsible for audio-visual materials, one of the teachers, and the audio-visual director for the school district were participating in an extension course from the University of Washington on audio-visual management. This group in particular was studying: (1) Personnel and Administration, (2) Materials, (3) Buildings and Equipment. The concerted effort of these individuals should bear much fruit for an improved audio-visual program in the locality concerned. Similar studies might well be made within a junior college toward the goal of more effective service and instruc-

tion. In this connection it would seem that an audio-visual faculty committee might well be the guiding and motivating force for such investigation.

Answers to the question on audio-visual budgets were given by five of the colleges. Because of the variety of answers received, there is little basis for comparison. Table I gives these data.

TABLE I
AUDIO-VISUAL BUDGET

	<i>Total A/V Budget</i>	<i>Percent for film rentals</i>
A	\$300	50
B	\$545	9
C	\$400	100
D	\$300	—
E	\$200	—

The low percentage for film rental shown by college B is accounted for by the fact that \$395 was included in the budget for a tape recorder. College D did not itemize its budget. Other items included as budgeted items by various colleges are flat pictures, recordings, and film strip and 2" x 2" projector. It is rather surprising that only one college indicated recordings in its budget. This school appears to be doing an unusual service on individual use of recordings.

In the matter of operation of audio-visual projection equipment the colleges are evenly divided between the use of student and faculty operators.

One college indicated that all faculty members were prepared to operate projection equipment. The

whole question of projection operation appears to be one of the real problems confronting audio-visual administration, especially in smaller colleges. Often faculty members do not have the time to learn to operate the equipment themselves, and to many it is a burden they would avoid even though it should mean that this source of instructional material would not be available to them.

One out-of-state junior college seems to have hit upon a happy solution to the problem as far as their own situation is concerned, according to the returned questionnaire. The plan is presented briefly here for what it may be worth to those facing this difficulty. Audio-visual materials are placed under the administration of the librarian, who has one full-time audio-visual room reservations clerk. The clerk is assisted by a volunteer group of students called the Silver Screen Club, who serve as projectionists, inspect and repair films and projectors, charge out phonograph records, and handle many of the mechanical details of the job. The projectionists are not paid except for evening or week-end assignments.

Where the budget will allow, it would seem that the best arrangement for the operation of projection equipment is by paid student operators. However, smaller junior colleges in the earlier stages of audio-visual development should find such a plan as the Silver Screen Club a practical solution.

Two of the schools queried pay their student projectionists while three do not.

The two colleges not reporting on this item use faculty projectionists only. In his recent article entitled "Administering an Audio-Visual Program," Dr. de Kieffer⁵ suggests several administrative forms that might well be used in a properly functioning audio-visual program. Table II shows to what extent these forms are being used in the Washington junior colleges.

TABLE II
FORM USED IN ADMINISTERING
THE A/V PROGRAM

<i>Forms</i>	<i>Number of colleges using</i>
1. Instructor-request form	4
2. Scheduling (hourly for each day)	4
3. Confirmation (giving reservation date, etc.)	3
4. Booking request	2
5. Regret (unavailability)	1
6. Evaluation	0

The forms used most frequently, according to Table IV, are the ones most vital to a smooth-running administration. As the audio-visual programs in the junior colleges develop, other forms are likely to be used as the need for them is felt. Several of the audio-visual directors believe that, at the present stage and with the rather small faculty in several instances, personal contact is more expeditious and satisfactory. On the other hand, there is evidence of the de-

⁵de Kieffer, Robert E. "Administering an Audio-Visual Program." *Junior College Journal*, XIX (April, 1949), 431-439.

sire for better intercommunication systems within the colleges, which would facilitate the audio-visual service given, especially as it concerns films.

It is somewhat surprising to learn that no junior college reports the use of an evaluation form, although according to many comments received there has been considerable experience with inappropriate and unsuitable films. Rufsvold has said:

The only approved method for selecting and appraising films is first-hand preview and experience. Even the best evaluations *when made by others* can be only guides to selection. Current best practice calls for a preview as near as possible to the time and place of eventual use. The film librarian on the basis of reviews, or upon suggestions from teachers, obtains the print from the producer or distributor. Representatives of the instructional staff are called in to preview the film, to determine its uses and to decide whether to purchase or rent. The combined judgment of the group is based not only on the preview, but also on experimental use of the film in classrooms and the results in terms of pupil achievement. This procedure insures the selection of films consistent with curriculum development and accomplishes the integration of the film with the course of study. When teachers are given a decisive voice in the selection of instructional materials they assume responsibility for the effective use of these materials.⁶

This being the case, it would seem essential to have some means of recording the opinions and comments of the evaluators, whether for purchase or rental. (The opin-

ions of Rufsvold as they apply to administration seem as applicable to the junior college as to the high school level.) By making a file of these evaluations of films, owned or rented, subsequent prospective users would be greatly aided in determining the usefulness of any particular film, especially if the folder on each film contained a variety of evaluations, reviews, and the like. This practice is being carried out at the University of Washington's Instructional Materials Center with considerable success. Rufsvold⁷ also gives an excellent form for this purpose.

The matter of housing audio-visual materials is of great importance. If not handled properly it can lead to the sort of confusion that can totally disrupt the program. Here again there was almost complete variety in the methods reported used. Two colleges house the audio-visual materials in the library, one of these stores the projectors in the main office; one college stores the materials in the department of photography; one in the physics stockroom; one in the classrooms; one secures its materials from city school administration building as needed; and one from the Technical Building of the city schools.

Of the seven schools reporting, six store their materials centrally, although one disperses film-strips and slides and another indicated that some materials used only in one department are so stored. One college has all of its materials dis-

⁶Rufsvold, Margaret I. *Audio-Visual School Library Service*. Chicago: American Library Association, 1949. 19.

⁷Rufsvold, *op. cit.*, 18.

persed according to major interest.

Experience has generally shown that materials and especially films should be controlled, if not housed, centrally for widest and most efficient use. Best practice is to have central administration and control with decentralized storage for use. Of the four out-of-state junior colleges responding to the questionnaire, all of them indicated central housing of materials: three, in an audio-visual library (or laboratory) in connection with the regular library and the fourth in a separate audio-visual center.

A point might be made here for the advisability of using the library for the audio-visual center. Libraries are organized for the administration of materials of communication and can absorb more easily than other departments related instructional materials. This is the practice of the Washington State Department of Education. According to John E. Hansen, Consultant on Instructional Materials Services, Washington State Department of Education:

The library and the audio-visual program should be combined into one instructional materials center, especially in the individual schools. . . . This locates all materials and resources which the teachers and pupils might need in one place. And it permits the cataloging of all such materials in one central catalog file. It is conducive to wide exploration of all materials and resources in a given unit of work or on a problem of study. It also would save on personnel, especially in the smaller schools where the student population does not warrant full-time personnel in each area.

On the affirmative side of this

issue, the University of Oregon, where on a large scale this sort of organization has been set up,⁸ is a good example. On the other hand, in a recent survey of American universities the investigator⁹ asked the question, "Should audio-visual education and materials be handled by the library?" Twenty-five answered "yes" and eighty-six, "no."

As previously indicated, the provision of an opportunity for previewing audio-visual materials is vital to the effectiveness of an audio-visual program. According to replies received, four Washington state junior colleges have and three do not have preview rooms. The value of a special preview room should not be underemphasized. It need not be large, for its purpose is not the showing of a film or other projected material for a large group, and it should be adjacent to the central audio-visual storage or administrative center. Provisions for previewing in some form must be made, whether the materials are rented or owned. Using for instructional purposes a film or other audio-visual material that hasn't been previewed is much like discussing a book that hasn't been read.

There can be little doubt that provision for use of projected materials within the classroom is desirable. Audio-visual materials

⁸Swank, R. E. "University of Oregon's Audio-Visual Service." *College and Research Libraries*, XXVIII (October, 1948), 299-307.

⁹Van Allen, Erwin. "Are Universities Teaching Audio-Visually?" *Educational Screen*, XXVIII (September, 1949), 305.

can be used to greater advantage, with less disruption of class activities, and with greater economy of time when the home classroom is used. Uniformity of practice among the junior colleges is noted from the data secured from questionnaires.

Three colleges indicated the availability of special rooms, but also use regular classrooms for projecting films, slides, and the like. Of the four out-of-state junior colleges presenting information, one uses only special rooms, one uses only regular classrooms, and two use both methods. No doubt the darkening of classrooms, especially for opaque projection, poses a problem in many classes. Since many junior colleges are planning new buildings, the desirability of facilities for darkening all classrooms should be given serious consideration. It is much easier to make such provisions, during, rather than after, construction.

Uncataloged materials are likely to be fugitive. Yet four replies indicated that audio-visual materials are not cataloged. Table III presents the methods of cataloging used by the junior colleges reporting.

One college uses both methods; this accounts for what seems to be an extra response in Table III. Two having no catalog at present indi-

TABLE III
METHOD OF CATALOGING A/V MATERIALS

<i>Cataloging method</i>	<i>Number of colleges</i>
1. Cataloged on cards with book collection	2
2. Separate catalog	2
3. Not cataloged	4
4. No reply	1

cated plans to catalog with the book collection.

Of the out-of-state junior colleges reporting, two have separate catalogs (although one is working on the other method at present), one catalogs on cards with the book collection, and one gave no reply.

Little has been written about the advisability and method of cataloging audio-visual materials. Rufsvold¹⁰ suggests cataloging on cards with the regular book collection for high school libraries. Coelin¹¹ is quite emphatic in stating his opinion that integrated cataloging must be established within the school library, bringing film references to play in relationship to books and other references on the given subject areas. Paine¹² has developed a system of cataloging audio-visual materials which might well be adapted for use in junior colleges.

Whatever method is decided upon will depend partly on the organizational set-up. If all instructional materials are under library administration, it seems logical to catalog them together.

In all seven junior colleges the assistance of the faculty has been secured in the selection of audio-

¹⁰Rufsvold, *op. cit.*, 56.

¹¹Coelin, O. H. "Audio-Visual Methods Challenge the School Librarian." *ALA Bulletin*, XLIII (April, 1949), 147.

¹²Paine, L. F. "Cataloging Audio-Visual Materials." *Wilson Library Bulletin*, XXIII (May, 1948), 699-701.

visual materials, usually by such methods as request (personal), requisition, and conference. Likewise the four out-of-state junior colleges from which information was available have enlisted the aid of the faculty. One respondent (out-of-state) stated the case well: "Audio-visual materials are designed to improve instruction, therefore, faculty members are the key in selection. Audio-Visual Library calls material to the attention of faculty members, who select

what they want." Information regarding possible new materials should be welcomed from every source. On the other hand, it is the responsibility of the audio-visual director to provide for the faculty as many useful aids to selection as possible.

Equipment and Materials. As previously suggested, mere numbers of material objects is no true criterion of the worth of an audio-visual program. However, this information is presented here as in-

TABLE IV
AUDIO-VISUAL EQUIPMENT OWNED BY THE COLLEGES

	College							No. of colleges owning
	A	B	C	D ^a	E	F ^a	G ^a	
1. 16 mm sound projectors	2 ^a	1 ^c	1	1	1 ^a	3	1 ^a	7
2. 35 mm slide projectors	1 ^b	1	1 ^c		1	3 ^b	1	6
3. 35 mm filmstrip projectors	1 [*]		1 [*]		1	1	1	5
4. 3½" x 4" slide projectors		1HS	1 [*]		1	1		3
5. opaque projectors	1	1HS			1	2	1	4
6. regular record player	1	1 ^d		1	1 ^d	1 ^d	1	6
7. LP record players		1 [*]		1	1 [*]	1 [*]	1	5
8. radio receiving sets	1				4			2
9. wire recorders		1HS			1			1
10. tape recorders	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	7
11. disc recorders	1				1			2
12. microphones	4	1			4		2	4
13. sound amplifying systems	1	1			2	2	1	5

¹Most equipment borrowed from county materials bureau

²Assumed that other equipment available from local school district

³All equipment used jointly with the high school

⁴Also owns one microprojector

^aAlso has one silent projector

^bDual purpose slide-filmstrip projector

^cAlso uses one belonging to high school

^dRegular and long playing combination

^eTri-purpose projector

^{*}Part of dual or tri-purpose equipment

TABLE V
AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS OWNED BY THE COLLEGES

	College							No. of colleges owning
	A	B	C ^a	D ^a	E	F ^a	G ^a	
1. sound films						55		1
2. silent films	33							1
3. 35 mm slides	57							1
4. 3½" x 4" slides							12	1
5. sound filmstrips						225		1
6. silent filmstrips	5							1
7. music recordings	240 ^r	30 ^r						2
8. speech recordings	70 ^r	27 ^r						2
9. flat pictures	40	11 ^a						2
10. exhibits	3	3						2

^aAll a/v materials handled by county materials bureau

^rThis information not recorded on questionnaire

^aA/V materials kept at school administration building

^aA/V materials used jointly with the high school

^rRegular recordings

^aArt folders

dicative of what the junior colleges have done to provide the physical prerequisites for such a program. Tables IV and V give the data from the questionnaire for the seven responding junior colleges. The tabulations present three types of organization: (1) the junior college owns and uses its audio-visual equipment and materials independently of other schools (represented best by college A and also E so far as equipment is concerned); (2) equipment and materials owned and/or used jointly with the high school (colleges B and F); (3) all audio-visual equipment and materials borrowed from

a central audio-visual bureau for the city or county schools (college C is typical). College E perhaps represents a fourth class in which the school owns its own equipment and borrows the materials from a school audio-visual center; this is probably the case with college G also (information given did not clearly indicate this). Although these data are sketchy for college D, it may be assumed from other information given that it falls into the pattern of type (3), at least partially so.

It will be noted, among other things, that none of the junior colleges own film collections of any

extent. This is understandable in light of the situation existing at present; it also seems practical. However, it should be pointed out that as Dr. Brown¹³ suggested recently, the closer a film collection is to the school or college, the greater will be the use by the faculty. Therefore, an attempt should be made to get the source of the film as close as possible to the user. This does not mean that all junior colleges should have large film collections. Rather, it would seem, some consideration might be given to regional libraries, where a pooling of resources might bring materials within easier reach of many. Or, where this is impractical, improvement in present channels for securing materials would have much the same effect. Another plan already adopted by some junior colleges is to purchase a small number of the most useful films and rely on the nearest and best rental or loan source for titles of secondary importance. (What is said here for films might well apply to other audio-visual materials.)

A matter for further research is the comparative cost of film rental and purchase. Any such study, however, must always weigh the advantages previously indicated of a local film supply against a possible higher cost.

It seems rather unsatisfactory for a junior college and high school in the same district to draw films from the same local pool for reasons already suggested. In the first place, students are liable to

monotony or boredom by the time they reach junior college, and secondly, unless a separate collection is made for the junior college (thus defeating the purpose), the maturity level is inclined to suffer.

The four out-of-state junior colleges present a somewhat similar picture, although two, rather large colleges, have collections of over 60 films.

The holdings of the junior colleges might be measured against the standards prepared by Helen H. Seaton for the Committee on Visual Aids in Education, American Council on Education.¹⁴ However, because of the variety of organizational patterns, there is little basis for comparison with these standards. For example, for at least three colleges accurate information on the quantity of audio-visual equipment as well as material available for use was not clearly presented. (This equipment and material is sometimes held by the local school district, usually in some sort of audio-visual center.) However, from the four schools for which the most accurate data are available, the comparison in Table VI has been set up.

In total, the picture presented by these four schools may be said to be poor as far as standard slide projectors are concerned, fair for sound movie projectors, and good

¹³Brown, James W. Talk given at the conference of Northwest College Librarians at Pacific Lutheran College, May 6, 1950.

¹⁴Seaton, Helen H. *A Measure for Audio-Visual Programs in Schools*. Washington: American Council on Education, 1944. 18-19.

TABLE VI

EQUIPMENT/PUPIL RATIO OF 4 JUNIOR COLLEGES COMPARED WITH ACE MINIMUM

	ACE ¹⁵ minimum	College equipment/pupil ratios*			
		A	B	E	G
1. Standard slide projectors	1/400	0	？**	1/525	— 0
2. Opaque projectors	1 per school	1 per school	？**	1 per school	1 per school
3. Miniature projectors	1/200	1/630	1/140	1/260	1/155
4. Sound movie projectors	1/200	1/315	1/140	1/520	1/310

*Based on 1948-49 enrollments.

**Ratio cannot be determined because this equipment is used with and belongs to the high school.

for opaque and miniature projectors. Seaton gives criteria for other types of equipment, that do not, in the local situations, lend themselves to a fair comparison.

Does the audio-visual collection represent all departments of the college equally well? This is a purely subjective question and elicited one affirmative reply, four negative, and two unanswered.

Strengths indicated are:

College

- A Economic geography
Health
Family relations
- B History and speech (recordings)
Ethnic folk music
- F Speech (tape recorder)
Biology, physiology, geology (Home movies)
Zoology (2" x 2" slides)

¹⁵Holt, H. O. "Audio-Visual Programs in Texas Junior Colleges." *Junior College Journal*, XX (December, 1949), 184-191.

Weaknesses mentioned are:

College

- B Music (Has no music department)
- C College level materials

There are many difficulties encountered in securing audio-visual materials. To give an over-all picture of this situation, the answers to the question, "What difficulties have you experienced in securing desired audio-visual materials?" are given by colleges.

College A

Booking difficulties — getting films when faculty wants them.

College B

Films for basic courses in English, use of dictionary, library, writing a research paper, all seem to be on an elementary or high school level. Many others too immature for college use. Some films not available for rental except from eastern sources.

College C

None.

College D

Hard to secure them for the exact date we need them. Find the film is not what we expected.

College E

Until the department at the U. of W. was installed it was difficult to secure materials at the junior college level by rental.

College F

Proper scheduling a bit difficult on the rental plan.

College G

Approval and handling of funds by the district.

For the most part, the answers seem to emphasize suggestions the writer has already made. The most serious problems appear to be booking difficulties and appropriate maturity level of films. The first problem is one that distributors should work on, whether they be public or private agencies. Audio-visual directors can also assist by experimenting with various types of transportation in cooperation with the loan or rental agency and by trying different local booking and preview arrangements. The second is a matter for the attention of producers. However, as the clamor of demand is heard, the supply is more likely to be forthcoming.

Services. The most significant feature of the present study seems to lie in the revelation of the audio-visual services being given in the junior colleges. These data are recorded in Tables VII and VIII, first by colleges, then by frequency of services.

No attempt has been made to de-

termine from these tables which of the junior colleges is giving the most valuable service. The tables do show clearly, however, that certain services are more common than others. The services given by the greatest number of colleges were procurement of audio-visual materials, training of projectionists, and community services. Each of these was given by all six of the colleges reporting on this phase of the questionnaire. However, only projection service was given at least occasionally by all six schools. Other services given occasionally by at least four of the six schools are loan of slide films, loan of recordings for class use, and demonstration of audio-visual techniques.

One item not included in Tables VII or VIII as it required a straight yes or no answer reads, "Is an information and reference service on audio-visual materials maintained?" Five affirmative replies were given, and one negative; one respondent gave no reply. (The item on loan of instructional films was not included in Table VIII as no junior college maintains a real film collection as yet. Those respondents indicating this service, Table VII, apparently interpreted it as loan of instructional films secured from outside sources.)

So far as the total picture is concerned, the rest of the services are negligible. However, in individual situations, the picture is quite different. One junior college appears to be beginning a very good pro-

TABLE VII
A/V SERVICES BY COLLEGE

	College						No. of colleges giving service	
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	
1. Loan of instructional film	(O)	—	(F)	—	N	N	F	(2) 1
2. Procurement of a/v materials from outside sources	O	F	R	—	F	O	O	6
3. Loan of slide-films for class	O	N	F	—	N	O	O	4
4. Loan of recordings for class use	O	F	O	—	F	N	R	5
5. Loan of recordings for individual use in library	N	F	N	—	N	N	R	2
6. Loan of recordings for individual use at home	N	O	N	—	N	N	R	2
7. Projection service	O	O	F	—	O	O	O	6
8. Preview service	R	O	O	—	F	R	O	6
9. Assistance in selection	O	F	R	—	F	R	O	6
10. A/v Bibliographies supplied	O	O ^a	R	—	R	N	N	4
11. Demonstration of a/v techniques	—	O	—	—	O	O	N	4
12. A/v workshops	—	N	R	—	N	N	N	1
13. Training of projectionists	R	O	F	—	F	F	O	6
14. Film series for faculty and students	N	N	N	—	O	—	—	1
15. Production of a/v materials	O	N	O	—	R	—	—	3
16. Other out-of-class activities	O	O ^b	—	—	—	—	—	2
17. Community services	R	R	—	—	O	O	R	6

() Apparently interpreted as loan of instructional films from outside sources.

^aIn conferences.

^bOccasionally show films out of class for anyone interested.

O Indicates occasionally

N indicates never

R indicates rarely

F indicates frequently

— indicates information not given

gram of individual student use of recordings in the library and occasionally in the home. Only one other respondent gave an affirmative reply to these items—"rarely," in both cases.

Thayer¹⁶ has suggested that a

¹⁶Thayer, Crawford B. "A New Role of the Junior-College Library." *Junior College Journal*, XIX (March, 1949), 396-398.

new role of the junior college is "to collect, house and make available for student use, all phonograph recordings which will inspire, instruct and enrich the student during his college life." Among other things, he has emphasized the value in junior college libraries of such materials as recordings of famous speeches and

TABLE VIII
A/V SERVICES BY FREQUENCY OF SERVICE

	Number of colleges giving the service				
	N	R	O	F	—
1. Procurement of a/v materials from outside sources		1	3	2	1
2. Loan of slide films	2		4		1
3. Loan of recordings for class use	1	1	2	2	1
4. Loan of recordings for individual use in library	4	1		1	1
5. Loan of recordings for individual use to take home	4	1	1		1
6. Projection service			5	1	1
7. Preview service		2	3	1	1
8. Assistance in selection of a/v materials for classroom use		2	2	2	1
9. A/v bibliographies supplied	3	2	1		1
10. Demonstration of a/v techniques	1		3	1	2
11. A/v workshops	4	1			2
12. Training of projectionists		1	2	3	1
13. Film series for faculty and students	3		1		3
14. Production of a/v materials	1	1	2		3
15. Out-of-class services			2		5
16. Community services		3	3		1

N indicates never

O indicates occasionally

R indicates rarely

F indicates frequently

— indicates information not given

plays, American and English poets reading their own works, transcriptions of D-Day invasion, the coronation of the King and Queen of England, secretarial dictation exercises at different speeds, and French, Spanish, and German language records. This can be extended to tape and disc recordings as well. Thayer further advises that recordings are available for almost any course except the sciences. He, too, suggests facilities for using recordings outside of class by students.

Another service item of special interest is the production of audio-visual materials. One college through the cooperation of a combined English-Photography class in film-strip production has produced for the State Department of Education a vocational set of 65 slides on waitress training. It has also made a set on a visit to a dairy and plans to produce a filmstrip or slides on county government. Another college has produced a public relations motion picture.

Likewise, out-of-state schools

report this sort of activity. One college produces "Any type of material needed to improve instruction, including charts, posters, slides, mockups, models, filmstrips, recordings, etc." Another indicated production of lantern slides, charts, and silent motion pictures.

One type of service that has received very little attention according to reports on the questionnaire is a film series for faculty and students. One college alone indicated that it gave this series. Apparently it has been tried elsewhere in Washington with little success. On the other hand, some educational institutions outside the scope of this study have had remarkable results from such a series. Because of the breadth of interest that can be reached in this way and the broadening influence of such a series, it might be advisable at least in certain situations to give further consideration to this kind of audio-visual service.

It is probably too early in the development of audio-visual programs in the junior colleges in Washington to expect much activity in the line of workshops, conferences, and clinics for the faculty. This was reflected in the findings of the survey as only one college reported such activity (that one, "rarely"). Nevertheless, it is a matter worthy of further attention, especially if greater faculty cooperation is desired.

In particular, further thought might be given to regional or other cooperative ventures along this line

by the junior colleges of Washington state; this could be on the order of the conferences sponsored by one out-of-state junior college, listed under Projects in Table IX, though probably not as ambitious.

Problems, Plans, Projects of Special Interest. An opportunity was provided in the questionnaire for presenting problems, plans, and projects which are presented in Table IX.

The audio-visual situation in the junior colleges of Washington is encouraging; yet much remains to be done. It is realized that underlying what might seem to some to be inertia is actually a matter of budget. With sufficient financial support there would be more personnel, more equipment, more material — and, undoubtedly, more service. Without an adequate budget no one can be expected to organize, administer, and develop a really significant audio-visual program. On the other hand, there will be those who, fired by a real philosophy of education, will surmount most obstacles and will lead the way in spite of inadequate support.

Most of the junior colleges have made a good beginning in audio-visual equipment and materials, although at the present time the American Council on Education standards have not been achieved to any significant degree.

Many of the more important audio-visual services are receiving the attention of a majority of

TABLE IX
PROBLEMS, PLANS, PROJECTS OF SPECIAL INTEREST

<i>College</i>	<i>Problems</i>	<i>Plans</i>	<i>Projects</i>
A	1. Scattered physical facilities. (2) Poor communication system among faculty. (3) Renting films presents problem of booking films for time desired. (4) Need for messenger service—getting films to post office.	New library building with audio-visual suite.	
B	(1) Securing adequate and suitable materials. (2) Pressure of time. (3) Selection and budgeting. (4) Educating the faculty to the use of a/v materials.		
C	(1) Lack of equipment. (2) Lack of time for a/v coordinator to do good job. (3) difficulty in securing materials.	(1) Building up a collection of recordings, especially for use of English dept., but will do so wherever else desired. (2) Planning toward a picture file.	(1) Art. dept. has picture file under way and has started cataloging it. (2) Have prepared a motion picture about campus activities.
D	(1) Inadequate supply of college level film available.	(1) Continue with high school cooperative plan another year until we move to our new campus.	(1) County library and service being developed.
E	(1) Adequate funds. (2) Appropriateness of films for college classes. (3) Insufficient advance information regarding content of films.	(1) Ultimately a regular projection room with fixed installation.	
An Out-Of-State Junior College	(1) the major problem facing us now is the organization and development of an effective evaluation program to steer our future course of action.	(1) Next year we are going to attempt an overall evaluation project which will point up specific problems and assess our strengths. This should prove to be extremely beneficial for all.	(1) Sponsoring a second conference in April on "The Effective Utilization of A/V Materials in College Teaching." Some 30 institutions from coast to coast will get together to discuss problems, exchange experiences and decide on activities of mutual interest.

junior colleges. Some others have been all but neglected—the production of audio-visual materials locally, the use of recordings (especially individual student use), film series for faculty and students, and out-of-class community services.

At this point, one might ask—what of radio production and the use of television? Certainly microfilm, microcards, and microprojection will eventually find their place

in the junior college instructional materials library.

The situation is ripe for audio-visual workshops and the like. If more faculty members can be encouraged to enroll, the University extension class, solving real problems within the community or institution, should prove helpful.

It is strongly recommended that the director of audio-visual service in every junior college periodically make an evaluation of this program based on authoritative criteria such as prescribed by de Kieffer¹⁷ or Rust.¹⁸

¹⁷de Kieffer, *op. cit.*, 431-439.

¹⁸Rust, G. C. "Administration of Audio-Visual Material in the Liberal Arts College," *Educational Screen*, XXVII (September, 1948), 321-324.

Six-Man Football

FRANCIS J. MUELLER

ONE of the more consistent and vexatious problems which has beset the path of junior college development has been that of intercollegiate athletics. No matter how high the arguments seem to pile on the side of de-emphasis of intercollegiate competition in favor of greater intramural activity, the fact remains that the mind-set of the American public is in the opposite direction. To many, a college with no intercollegiate program seems almost to involve an inherent contradiction.

The critical nature of this problem, particularly as it affects enrollment, need not be elaborated. Suffice it to say that its proportions are such that considerable administrative effort has been expended in an attempt to field, often under very serious handicaps, as many athletic teams for intercollegiate competition as possible. And, unfortunately, the most difficult sport in which to field a team is the one which the public mind most frequently associates with intercollegiate athletics—football.

Football, among all the usual collegiate sports, entails the largest squads, the most expensive equipment, and the highest officiating costs, and demands as well, the best of physical conditioning. When to this is added high student turnover, typical of most junior colleges, where the most a coach can hope

for is two seasons of participation per player, it becomes really a wonder that many of these institutions manage to field a team at all.

Among those junior colleges where football is played, many a coach would feel happy with the prospect of claiming twenty-two players with a fair degree of game ability—until, that is, he is reminded of the two-platoon operation which football has become today. On the other hand, had his team been playing the six-man game rather than the eleven, his twenty-two stalwarts would represent practically four full squads instead of an inadequate two.

Six-man football is a rather recent development. The first game was played in Nebraska in 1934, and since that time it has made amazing gains, particularly in the high school ranks. For the year following the first game, statistics revealed that one high school in every 120 was playing six-man football; the next year, 1936, the ratio was one in 35; and by 1941 one in eight. During this last war interest waned somewhat, but has recovered to such an extent that in 1947-48 a survey of 18,737 high schools in 45 states revealed that 1,654 were participating in six-man football.

Although some schools engage interscholastically with both the six-man and eleven-man forms of

football, the majority of supporters of the six-man team are the smaller institutions which find they have an insufficient number of boys for competition in the eleven-man game, or else have found the equipment burden too expensive.

Basically, six-man football is a wide-open, fast-moving game, in which the emphasis has been transferred from power play to passing and running. Generally speaking, the playing rules for the eleven-man game have been retained, but with certain necessary modifications due to the fewer players involved. The field is somewhat smaller (80 yards instead of the usual 100), and fifteen yards is required for a first down. Using a three-man line and a three-man backfield, the greatest departure of the game from the eleven-man version is that of the "clear pass." This addition to the rules, intended to discourage the excessive use of power plays, requires that the receiver of the snap from center either forward pass or pass the ball "a clearly visible distance" to a teammate before the ball may be run across the line of scrimmage. Blocking, tackling, kicking, and passing are all identical with that of the eleven-man sport, except in six-man football any player is an eligible pass-receiver. To encourage more kicking, two points are rewarded for a touchdown conversion, and four points for a field goal, while the remainder of the scoring is coincident with that of the eleven-man game.

Seemingly this six-man sport should be particularly suitable to the football needs of the junior college. It has all the qualities which one might ascribe to the eleven-man game, and many more. It is a rugged contact sport, demanding team play and sound physical conditioning; it has spectator appeal, requires less manpower, less expense, less time in learning plays, and places particular emphasis on those fundamental aspects of football which players like best to perform. Since six-man football is such a wide-open game, individual performance in these fundamentals counts for more and should make the experience a very real asset to the transfer junior college graduate desiring to continue his football activities in senior college.

No *team* sport, however, is really worth its while without competition. This means that the adoption of six-man football by one junior college is just so much wasted effort unless other institutions of like standing take up the sport, which in turn brings up another sore spot of junior college athletics: the lack of suitable and comparable competition. Athletically, the junior college is an in-between, too old for high school competition and too young for senior college competition, with the result that this scheduling dilemma is all too frequently resolved by the unhealthy practice of carding teams representing such non-academic establishments as military groups and local clubs. If

junior college athletics are to be of any significant value to the participating students, competition, especially in football, must be restricted to teams representing other academic institutions using players of a comparable age range.

Although scheduling home-and-home games in one season is not the established practice in football, where adequate competition is sparse, this convention should be accorded very little weight. Thus, if as few as five junior colleges within a certain geographical area were to decide in concert to adopt six-man football and to play each other on a home-and-home basis, a full eight-game schedule is automatically guaranteed. Such a plan should not only provide the added incentive of league competition, but the mere identification with a

strictly junior college organization should enhance the stature of the junior college as an academic entity in the eyes of the public.

It is clearly understood here that such proposals as these may produce reverberations among whatever vested interests the eleven-man game of football has been able to establish at the junior college level. However, it must be emphatically stated that these proposals do not in any way spring from some brief against the more traditional eleven-man game; rather, that they are advanced suggestively as a remedy to a situation which could, in time, lead to the complete abolishment of football from many a junior college athletic program. Those persons interested in the future of junior college athletics might profitably investigate further the game of six-man football.

Deans in the Organization and Administration of Junior Colleges

A. C. PIERCE

THE names given to administrative officers of public junior colleges have sometimes resulted in confusion. "Dean" is one of such titles which has been applied to the chief administrator, to the first assistant to the chief, and to various other officials. Ten years ago, J. R. Johnson, writing in the *Junior College Journal*, discussed the duties of deans and included all officers who had the title of "Dean of the Junior College." Four years later, L. V. Koos studied junior college administrative personnel and found much overlapping of titles and functions. This article seeks to clarify some of the misunderstandings. The titles of junior college administrators, the system of administrative organization, the duties and responsibilities of administrative officers, and the interrelationship of the administrative functions will be considered.

The information used in this discussion was obtained from questionnaires sent to the administrators of 288 public junior colleges, and 51 specialists in the field of junior college education, men who are professors in graduate institutions, officials of national and state educational organizations, and individuals who have done research in the field of the junior college. The validity of the findings has been based upon the consistency of the

responses. Twenty-six of the specialists and 177 of the colleges responded to the questionnaire. For the purpose of analyzing the returns, junior colleges were considered from the standpoint of the size of their student bodies: those having more than 1,000 students were called large, those having from 300 to 999, medium, and those having less than 300, small. Forty-five (74%) of the large schools replied, 74 (60%) of medium-sized junior colleges, and 58 (56%) of the small colleges.

Actual replies indicate that 52% of the large, 37% of the medium, and 27% of the small junior colleges have deans. If the sample is accurate for the whole group of public junior colleges, then it is indicated that there are deans in 60% of the entire group, or 71% in large, 62% in medium, and 48% in small junior colleges. When it is considered that the dean's office was carefully described and identified as the position held by the second administrative officer of the junior college, the person who is the first assistant to the chief administrator of the college, then it is noted that changes in the administrative officers of junior colleges have taken place.

To understand these changes it is necessary to consider some of the available information. The

word "dean" has come from antiquity, having the meaning "one set over ten" in Latin. There have been deans of universities since medieval times—in American colleges and universities since the first at Harvard in 1870. J. D. Russell, C. A. Milner, and M. S. Ward believe the office grew out of the increased administrative responsibilities in American colleges, because the president could no longer handle all of the administrative functions. Probably, the fact that most public junior colleges developed out of local public school systems which were presided over by a superintendent accounts for so many of their first officers being known as deans in their early development. As junior college staffs kept growing, the need for a distinction between the chief and other officers may have caused the change to such first administrator titles as "president," "director," or "principal." The present study shows that, of 99 junior colleges, only 16 of the chief administrators are called "dean," while 42 second officers are called "dean," or 64 second administrators are called either "dean" or "dean of" something. It is interesting to note that these figures show almost a complete reversal from those found by Koos approximately six years ago when his study showed 59 per cent of the chief officers called "dean" and only 22 per cent called "president."

Postwar conditions have resulted in increased numbers of junior col-

leges and junior college students which have caused some administrative reorganization in the junior college field. By considering statistically the 177 junior colleges reporting in this study, according to the size of their student bodies, a "C" (Contingency) factor of .55 is found. With a standard error of .075, this shows a substantial or marked relationship between those schools which have a dean and the schools with the largest enrollments. There is also a present but slight relationship between the junior colleges which have their own campus and buildings (as contrasted with those which operate in a high school building) and the presence of a dean in the organization of the institution. In this case, however, there is also a definite relation between the larger junior colleges and schools which have a campus of their own; therefore, the enrollment of the college is probably the primary factor in determining the need for a second administrative officer for the school as a whole.

The study showed, also, that all those junior colleges which have a second administrative officer invariably have the line-and-staff administrative relationship or a variation of it. Older colleges and universities in the last several years have shown indications of moving toward the coordinate plan of administrative organization; this condition was barely noted in the present study of junior colleges, but there is the possibility that here

again the junior colleges will follow the example of older educational institutions as their programs are broadened and developed.

The functions of the deans were considered from the standpoint of his primary responsibilities, his committee assignments, his day-to-day duties, and the amount of sharing this responsibility with the other administrative officers of his institution. The chief officer of the junior college stands out as the leader in policy making, the liaison director between the board and the school, the chief in public relations of the college, and the person chiefly responsible for the business management of the institution. On the other hand, the dean's work is to supervise all matters related to instruction in the college, and all matters involving students at the school — in other words he appears to be the leader in the internal operation of the institution. Ninety-seven per cent of the respondents from schools where there now is a dean indicated that the chief duty of deans, from the standpoint of importance to the institution, is his assisting the chief executive of the college. Six duties, ranked according to their impor-

tance to the school, appeared in more than 75 per cent of the cases: assisting and advising the chief administrator; supervising the curriculum, the class schedule, all teaching at the college, all matters relating to student registration; and being responsible for admission standards.

The registrar and the business manager were listed as sharing in assisting the president, and they only infrequently. After the president, the registrar is the officer with whom the dean shares responsibilities most frequently; guidance directors, placement officers, deans of students, deans of men and women, and deans of activities are the personnel officers who come next in sharing the duties of the dean.

It appears, then, that junior colleges are coming more and more to have two general administrative officers, a chief administrator most often called "president" and second in command called "dean"; and with the line-and-staff administrative organization, the other administrative officers are usually coordinates of equal rank serving under the leadership of the president and the dean.

The Junior College World

JESSE P. BOGUE

DIFFICULT Problem Settled.

One of the most knotty problems which junior colleges in some states have faced with respect to securing preferred status with the several branches of the Armed Forces has been officially settled. California junior colleges experienced almost constant difficulties in this matter because they were not accredited by any regional accrediting association. There were others in some states which faced the same problem. By continuous representation and extensive cooperation from the Division of Higher Education of the U. S. Office of Education and by the splendid work of Dr. Jay Davis Conner, Associate Superintendent, State Department of Education for California, assurances have been given that all branches of the Armed Forces will accept the list of junior colleges as published in *Part III, Education Directory, Higher Education*. This assurance will be another step in getting better understanding for junior colleges by governmental agencies. It has been one of the longest and most troublesome problems which the Washington Office of the Association has tackled. Special mention is gladly given to the patient and intelligent interpretations which were made by Dr. John Dale Russell, Chief, Division of Higher Education, U. S. Office of Education.

Emergency Defense Programs.

Junior college people will recall that during the second World War they were not enabled to make contracts with the Federal Government for emergency training programs. Whatever work was secured by them had to come through senior institutions. This arrangement was not always satisfactory, especially with regard to the amounts of payments for instruction, etc. At this writing, details of how the emergency training will be handled have not been worked out between the U. S. Office of Education and the Department of Labor. This will probably have been completed by the time the February *Journal* goes to press if not before that time. Congress also must make appropriations to support such training. In plans which have been recommended, junior colleges are included for direct contracts with the Federal Government. If and when final plans for emergency training of industrial workers are made, and if junior colleges are included for direct contracts, another step will have been taken in a sensible utilization and recognition of these institutions.

Junior College Facilities. In recent years, great progress has been made in the further development of facilities in junior colleges and technical institutes. A national survey has been in progress and is

now being completed state by state. California was the first state to complete such a survey. It may be of interest to the readers to know something of the facilities of California with respect to specialized training in the junior colleges. For example, the actual shop space at any one time as of last September which was available may be seen in the following:

- 79 Electronics laboratories, capacity 1,878 students.
- 235 Metal trades shops, capacity 5,572 students.
- 66 Wood trade shops, capacity 1,577 students.
- 46 Aeronautics shops, capacity 1,103 students.
- 70 Drafting laboratories, capacity 1,744 students.
- 184 Business education laboratories, capacity 5,857 students.
- 23 Practical nursing laboratories, capacity 671 students.

These are the capacities for students at any one time. Numbers which could be trained would greatly exceed the capacity numbers. In addition to the above shops and laboratories, there are ample facilities for training in diesel engines, refrigeration, meteorology, photography, navigation, etc. Every reasonable effort is being made to make the agencies of the Federal Government aware of the facilities of junior colleges and technical institutes. It is believed that these facilities and the trained personnel

to man them can be of great assistance in the national defense efforts.

Pueblo's New Vocational-Technical Facilities. On December 12th, Pueblo Junior College, Pueblo, Colorado, held open house to the city and community at its new vocational-technical building. The *Pueblo Star-Journal* for December 10th, carried a full-page spread of pictures about the million dollar facilities. Some idea of the size of the building may be gathered by the fact that the main corridor is 395 feet long. There are modern fire-proof booths and shops for welding, audio-visual library, refrigeration department, drafting and engineering, machine shops, up-to-date and expansive radio laboratory, etc. Pueblo is an example of junior college organization in which the vocational-technical work at the 13th and 14th years has become an integral part of the total college program. It is the vocational-technical department of the college in the same manner as a college of engineering is one of the several colleges of a university. Developments of this kind are taking place in many sections of the United States. They are setting a workable pattern for an integrated technical education with the entire program of the colleges.

Missouri Junior Colleges Meet. According to a news release from Dr. Frederick J. Marston, Secretary, the Missouri Junior College Association convened at breakfast on November 17th in the annual

fall meeting. This meeting is held annually in connection with the Missouri Education Association. Dean E. E. Camp of Monett Junior College presided and Dr. Elmer Ellis was the main speaker. On December 9th, the Association met at the University of Missouri in what is known as the Annual Junior College Day. The speakers were Dr. James W. Reynolds of the University of Texas and Dr. W. W. Carpenter of the University of Missouri. The latter addressed the group on "Education in Japan." Dr. Carpenter returned last fall from an extended trip to that country. The afternoon session was devoted to topics in eleven areas of study. Representatives of the University engaged in various areas of education collaborated with junior college groups in the area studies. It is said that this method tends to keep both groups informed about the aims and progress in junior colleges at the University.

Bradford's Lecture-Recital Series. The 1950-51 Lecture-Recital Series at Bradford Junior College, Bradford, Massachusetts, is printed in an attractive 20-page booklet. There are three series: Friday night lectures, Sunday vespers, and the Artists Recital Course. Twenty-four numbers are being offered to the students and the people of the Bradford community. Such names as Edward Everett Horton, Henrik De Kauffmann, Richard J. H. Johnston, noted preachers and musicians appear in the series. Miss Dorothy Bell, Vice-President of the

Association is President of Bradford.

Navarro's New Plant. Rapid progress is being made for the construction of a completely new plant for Navarro Junior College, Corsicana, Texas. The gymnasium was completed and furnished in January of this year. It measures 104 by 180 feet and is one of the largest in that section of the state. The administration building is expected to be completed by June 1, 1951. In addition to offices for the administration and full staff, 16 classrooms, the library, and offices and workrooms for faculty and student publications will be in this building. The science building of 8,400 square feet of floor space will have lecture rooms and laboratories for agriculture, biology, chemistry and physics. The student union building will have 6,000 square feet and will provide for needs of the bookstore, cafeteria and recreation. It was started early in January. By September 1st, 1951, it is expected that two dormitories will have been completed: one for men and another for women, housing respectively 40 and 60 people. Ample campus space and recreation fields have been secured for the college. Ray L. Waller is president of the college which was organized on a county basis in 1946.

Flint Junior College Progress. Under the leadership of W. Fred Totten, President, the faculty of Flint Junior College and the citizens of Flint, Michigan, are engaged in a long-term development

program. The first steps were taken in 1947-48 when the University of Michigan Social Science Research Bureau made a study of the city with a view of discovering the post-high school needs of the community. It was found that about 1,300 students would attend a strongly supported two-year college, and about two to three thousand would attend a four-year college. In the spring of 1950, the voters approved a bond issue of \$1,700,000. Mr. C. S. Mott has offered the Board of Education \$1,000,000 as a gift to assist with the construction of the college plant. Previously, Mr. Mott had offered the Board of Education land for the campus. The enrollment this year is 877, or a gain of nearly 7 per cent over last year. Evening credit courses have gained 20 per cent over the previous year. Mr. Totten credits better publicity, better relations with high schools and general interest in the long-range plans for the college as responsible for the increased attendance.

Yuba College Studies. The administration and faculty of Yuba College, Marysville, California, have been making a study of the aims of general education. Preliminary studies have been duplicated for distribution. Aims are identified under headings: worthy moral character, logical and objective thinking, competence in the English language, mental and physical health, knowledge and personal traits essential for successful fam-

ily living, responsible citizenship, understanding of the significant facts and principles of the sciences in their relation to everyday life, and appreciation of literature and the fine arts as well as the development of creative talents. An interesting paragraph deals with the place and example of the teacher for inspiring students to strive to attain the aims of the college: "Each faculty member should realize his responsibility for exalting the objectives in his own personal life. By living example, at all times faculty members should try to show the students that the objectives are important and worthwhile."

Christian College Centenary. On January 18 of this year, Christian College, Columbia, Missouri, celebrated its 100 years of educational service. The formal procession of official delegates began at 10 A.M., and the speaker for the occasion was Senator J. William Fulbright of Arkansas. Dr. and Mrs. James C. Miller held a reception from 3 to 4 P.M. and open house at the College was from 4 to 5 P.M. Christian was chartered in 1851 as one of the first colleges for women west of the Mississippi River. First junior college instruction was started in 1913. Dr. Frederick J. Marston officially represented the American Association of Junior Colleges and extended greetings and congratulations for the Association.

National Convention. As of this writing, December 21st, no announcements have been made with

respect to traveling to convention. All plans have been made for the annual meeting at Hotel Fort Des Moines, Des Moines, Iowa, March 4th to 8th. Main speakers will be Dr. Kenneth McFarland of Topeka, Kansas; President Virgil Hancher, of Iowa State University; Dr. Arthur Adams, President, the American Council on Education;

Dr. Livingston Blair of the American National Red Cross. The convention will be devoted mainly to area studies under the organization of 21 groups designated by the five research committees. The roving observer will be Dr. Karl Bigelow of Columbia University who will give the review and critique of the discussion groups.

From the Executive Secretary's Desk

JESSE P. BOGUE

DATA for the Directory for junior colleges, published in the November *Journal*, have received some attention during recent days. Information was gathered and tabulated by the Office of the Director of Research this year. This practice was a departure from previous years when data were collected by the Washington Office of the Association.

There is one feature of the reports from colleges which seems to merit special attention; namely, adult education. Enrollment figures for 1948-49 for adult students in junior colleges were 142,220; for 1949-50 they were 214,207, or a net gain of over 71,000 students. One is compelled to ask why this increase is so large in a single year. There are probably several factors which are responsible.

In the first place, it is known that a considerable number of junior colleges have had adult programs for several years, but have not reported attendance for the annual directories. This writer has visited some of these schools and discussed the problem with administrators. For some reasons they did not seem to know that they were supposed to report attendance in adult programs. We recall one college in particular which had an excellent community program of diversified offerings for adults. Nearly 500 people were enrolled. At

the general assembly of the college, the dean announced that he was pleased because the Executive Secretary had advised the reporting of adult attendance. It is evident that the number of junior colleges reporting adult enrollments for 1949-50 is greater than in any previous year because *more colleges have become aware of the fact that they are supposed to make such reports.*

There are other colleges which have adult programs which did not make reports of attendance for the latest *Directory*. The cause may stem from some confusion, or misunderstanding, or reluctance and modesty about claiming credit for what is being done. We know of two junior colleges, for example, which are responsible for the organization and administration of adult education city wide. In both instances, a considerable number of organizations cooperate with the colleges in the programs. For this reason, the deans hesitate to make reports and claim credit for the junior colleges. It would appear to be reasonable, however, for the colleges to make reports of what is being done when they are primarily responsible. It is an estimate only, but judging from reports which come to the *Desk*, it is likely that if all colleges had made full returns, figures for adult attendance would have been much higher than 214,207. It is not suggested that

junior colleges claim credit for what they are not primarily responsible for, but rather that reports should clearly reflect what they themselves are really doing.

In the second place, a considerable number of junior colleges are awakening to the needs for adult education and the fact that these needs can be met by those institutions. In some instances, junior colleges are acting as the coordinating agencies for various kinds of programs in the communities. They are also offering work which they are best qualified to give. Sacramento Evening College, Sacramento, California, is a good example, although several could be given. More than 16,000 adult students were enrolled last year in one or more of a vast array of programs. The Evening College, in addition to its own distinct offerings, acted as the agency to coordinate practically all adult education in the city. Whenever and wherever this service can be given, it would be to the advantage of the community to have it done by the community college.

In the third place, there is a growing realization of values of adult education. The general principle that learning is a life-long process and that adults can continue to learn just as well as can the youth is becoming more and more of a conscious conviction. If this principle is sound, and there seems to be ample evidence to confirm it, then it becomes the duty of some responsible agency to im-

plement it in every community of any size. The agency is not the most important question. Wherever there is a community college, however, one might well ask what better agency could be found as the sponsor for adult education. Over the week-end of December 17, a very significant meeting was held at the University of Michigan in the interest of creating a more effective national organization for adult education. Already, unification has been achieved in the two adult education journals. The aim of those interested in the movement now is to bring about greater unity and cooperation of all persons who are engaged or interested in adult education. It is expected that individual membership rather than those of organizations will be provided. The cooperation and encouragement of all organizations in which adult education plays some part is to be fostered.

This writer's attention was recently called to an article in *The Country Gentleman*, December, 1950, entitled, "Quick Build-Up for Poor Soil." It is the story of the results of education for adults in the community of New Carlisle, Indiana. This is a small community in north Indiana which at one time had been prosperous. By short-sighted practices of mining the soil, farms had become so poor that many of them had been abandoned or were incapable of providing a living. By means of adult education for the farmers in new methods of quickly rebuilding the soil,

amazing results have been accomplished. Corn yields have advanced within a few years from a low of 43 bushels per acre to a whopping 141 bushels; on some farms where seed was scarcely returned, wheat crops went up to 51 bushels and oats to 97 bushels per acre. The significance of the story lies in the fact that this new prosperity for the community stems from adult education. In this instance, the County Agent has been the responsible person. Junior and community colleges would have very little difficulty getting funds for their work if they were showing results in their communities similar to those reported for New Carlisle, Indiana. Economic prosperity and all that such prosperity means to a community is directly associated in the minds of the people with a program of practical education.

We have just read the 1949-50 annual report of George P. Donaldson, President, Abraham Baldwin Agricultural College, Tifton, Georgia. "The number of people to attend the adult short courses during the past year has more than doubled that of any other years since we started the program in 1940. Dean Tom Cordell, who so ably directs this feature of our work, feels that the large attendance not only indicates increased interest, but points to the great need for the work. The fact that 6,366 people took time out of their daily work to attend shows that they are interested in getting new

ideas and information which will help with their problems." President Donaldson further lists several reasons for the increase of interest. Among them is this sentence: "All courses are kept on a practical basis which enables farmers to make immediate application." Donaldson's program has grown with such vitality that last year farmers came to the college from 107 of Georgia's counties. Full cooperation has been given by all agricultural agencies in the state, thereby making it possible to offer almost any subject desired by the farmers.

What is being done in agriculture can be done for almost any other occupation if the colleges will identify those essential needs, reveal them to the people and provide practical programs to meet them. The needs may not necessarily fall within the scope of daily bread winning. They may reach into intellectual and cultural interests of the people, and often do. The whole process in this kind of down-to-earth education is bound to have favorable results on the development of the kinds of education for youth which will have greater meaning for them.

Junior college people can learn much of great value about adult education from other countries, especially England, Denmark, Norway and Sweden. *The Journal of Higher Education*, January, 1950, carries an article by George F. Kneller entitled, "The British Adult Residential College." It is stated

that "in these colleges persons over eighteen may learn while they earn, without any thought of degrees, certificates, credits, or other tangible awards usually associated with university life." It is further observed by Mr. Kneller that many university graduates "find their way in adult life to one or more of these schools in order to round out or to review in a more adventurous and informal way certain fields of knowledge which attract their interest. They also enter, along with non-graduates, into programs dealing with phases of life which they may have neglected in their school days."

Some people may wonder how well university graduates and others with limited formal education may be able to mix and learn together. Recently, this writer discussed this problem with the director of adult education in one of America's most distinguished universities. He told us of a program dealing with the foreign relations of the United States in which attendance was composed of nearly all sorts of people educationally. Some tests were run to find out the levels of comprehension. They showed that people with limited background in formal education did almost as well as others who had had more education. It is probable that the former were people whose minds were naturally alert and who were students of affairs day by day on an informal basis. Presentations of subject matter were in terms understandable to the masses of

the people. This writer has often recalled the fact that nearly every principle which he discovered in psychology courses had already been explained to him by his father in terms of common sense and daily observations. The main difference between learning from books and teachers of psychology or from his father were in the length of time it took to get at the meat of the matter and the involved technical language of the former, in contrast to the direct, concrete statements of the latter. Administrators in scores of junior colleges have stated that it is one of the best possible experiences for their teachers to teach at least one class of adults. They have declared that it improves them for instructing the younger students. Improvements probably come by way of better organization of materials, greater simplification in presentations and attempts to create motivation by showing practical applications.

The *Directory* for the year 1949-50 shows that 127,308 adult students were in California junior colleges. California has about 10 million people; the United States has 150 million. The reader might take his pencil and estimate what a host of people would be in adult education in all states if they were doing as well as California. It is an understatement to say that there ought to be at least an half million adults enrolled in junior colleges; twice that number would be a fairer goal. Attention is called

to developments along this line in privately controlled junior colleges as recorded in the *Directory*: Westbrook at Portland, Maine, 371 freshmen and sophomores and 351 adults; Campbellsville, Kentucky, 546 full-time students, 406 adults; Hillyer College, Hartford, Connecticut, 362 full-time students, 1,703 adults. As one observes that enrollments in the sophomore year

are approximately 40 per cent less than in the freshman year he cannot refrain from asking, What further education do these people with one year of college need? Perhaps, if we will, we may find out by asking them and by planning practical and realistic courses of formal or informal adult education for them and millions of others in these United States.

Notes on the Authors

MARION GAITHER KENNEDY

In 1944 the enrollment of Los Angeles City College was 2,910, and it increased to 9,346 in 1948. In *Classroom Utilization on an Overcrowded Campus*, JOHN LOMBARDI and CHARLES W. TRIGG explain how this situation was relieved by construction of temporary buildings and rearrangement of class schedules.

Mr. Lombardi is dean of instruction at Los Angeles City College and president of the Southern California Junior College Association.

Mr. Trigg, a former contributor to the *Journal*, is assistant dean of instruction and a Lt. Commander in the U.S. Naval Reserve.

Deans in the Organization and Administration of Junior Colleges, an article taken from ALFRED C. PIERCE'S doctoral dissertation, clarifies the position of deans in junior colleges and enumerates their various responsibilities.

Mr. Pierce is assistant dean-registrar at Del Mar College, Corpus Christi, Texas.

The Employer Looks at the Job of the Educator, is a speech delivered by WAL-LACE JAMIE before the members of the junior college faculties and board of education at the Los Angeles City Schools on October 27, 1950.

Mr. Jamie is General Personnel Director for the Carnation Company, Director of the Personnel and Industrial Relations Association of Los Angeles, and author of *Industrialism and Mercenary Crime*.

A Survey of the Services Performed by the Libraries of the Junior Colleges of Washington in the Field of Audio-Visual Materials was written by EDGAR R. LARSON in partial fulfillment of the requirements for his baccalaureate degree in librarianship.

Mr. Larson is leaving his present position of Bibliographer-Searcher on administrative furlough from the Library of Congress to take a position on the staff of the Army sponsored Library School for the Japanese in Japan.

Six-Man Football, by FRANCIS J. MUELLER, is an interesting argument for a new type of football for junior colleges whose enrollments cannot provide for the eleven-man two-platoon system.

Mr. Mueller, an instructor in the department of mathematics at Baltimore Junior College, receives his Ed.D. degree this month from Johns Hopkins University. Formerly he was director of intramural athletics at Loyola College, where he also taught mathematics.

This month's reviewer for *Judging the New Books* is REED L. BUFFINGTON, dean of general education at Contra Costa (California) Junior College. Mr. Buffington was formerly a member of the social science department of the Wright Branch of Chicago Junior College, and represented the Wright Branch at the Conference on Evaluation of General Education sponsored by the American Council on Education.

Geography and General Education: A Junior College View is a report by MEYER WEINBERG, instructor in the Social Science Department of Wright Junior College, Chicago, Illinois, on a World Geography Course he has taught for the past three years. The course is primarily aimed at presenting a complete picture of geography in relation to world conditions to terminal students who could not receive adequate instruction from one specialized course and who would not have the opportunity to take additional courses in geography.

Recent Writings

JUDGING THE NEW BOOKS

Stickler, Hugh, James Paul Stokes, and Louis Shores, (Editors). *General Education: A University Program in Action*. Dubuque, Iowa: Williams C. Brown Company, 1950. pp. v-280.

Upon glancing at the title of this book, the reviewer was struck by the thought that here was another book dedicated to the proposition that a prescription of a university program was all that was needed to guide the educators of the country along the paths of righteousness. It was a welcome surprise, to find, however, that the authors apparently had no missionary zeal, nor were they confining themselves to a laborious descriptive task. Upon a re-examination of the title, in conjunction with the text, one finds that in reality the book attempts to do two things: in Part I, "General Education in the Modern World," to summarize and particularize the concept and to justify general education as a university endeavor; in Part II, to describe, with a brevity that is commendable, the program of general education now in effect at Florida State University.

In the first chapter the President of Florida University, Doak S. Campbell, relates some historical background to the functions of the American university and concludes that general education must be an integral part of that institution's

efforts. He attributes the need for a program of general education to the "great popularizing or democratizing movement" and defines general education as that which "involves and includes an elementary understanding of the great bodies of knowledge, of their interrelations, and of their relations to the student." One indeed might be somewhat alarmed at that definition if it had not been more explicitly set forth in the preface. There it is defined as that part of the total educational program which seeks primarily to develop in the student the skills, understandings, attitudes, and set of values which will equip him for successful personal and family living and for responsible citizenship in a democratic society.

Eduard C. Lindeman discusses "Social Trends and Their Implications for General Education." He examines the social trends in American life and sees in them implications for general education. His conclusion is that the requirements of citizenship in modern democracy give rise to the need for general education.

Earl J. McGrath reviews, in a philosophical vein, general education and its relationship to the President's Commission on Higher Education. His is an attempt at a justification of the general education program while answering

some of the critics. In discussing "General Education: Theory and Practice," he examines the premises upon which earlier educational programs have been based and comes to the conclusion that the new programs of general studies have stemmed from what he describes as false premises. It is interesting to note that McGrath endorses the present emphasis upon methodology as contrasted with the presentation of vast bodies of material.

The conclusion to Part I is explained in a chapter entitled "General Education: Answer to a Challenge." W. Hugh Stickler and James Paul Stokes point out the challenge of the numbers of students and the kind of education they should have. Their solution for meeting this challenge lies in a program of general education. A vital portion of this chapter is a statement of the objectives of general education at Florida State University which are notable in two respects. In the first place, the Faculty Senate approved these objectives without a dissenting vote, which in itself is a major accomplishment, and secondly a state university has made an effort and evidently a very successful one, to establish something more than the characteristic catalogue description of the purposes of the institution.

Part II of the book consists of the more detailed explanation of what Florida State University has instituted as its program of general

education, prefaced by a discussion by Mr. Stickler in which he is concerned with describing "The Students We Teach." A sub-heading in this chapter entitled, "On Understanding Students," is an indication of the entire philosophy which seems to be prevalent in this text. One might venture that the old horse about teaching students instead of subject matter is becoming a reality at Florida State University. This faculty has done considerable work in examining the characteristics of its students. Without the full story, which cannot be presented in a chapter, one is unfair in being very critical; however, implicit in many statements of the characteristics of students is a series of value judgments concerning these characteristics. For example, it is said "all home backgrounds are, in general, good." What criterion has been established for the making of such a judgment is not readily discernible. One wonders whether implicitly or explicitly stated, it might not have been better to have accepted the student as he came without evaluation of his background in terms of the faculty's own value system.

The description of the program actually begins with a chapter by James Paul Stokes and Clarence W. Edney. They describe a communication program in which the avowed purpose is to assist the students in the accurate and meaningful reception and transmission of ideas.

Health and Personal Adjustment are explained by Samuel R. Neel, Jr. These courses are planned to help the students make adjustments in such a manner that they (the students) "will enjoy optimum physical, mental, emotional, and spiritual health." The faculty in this area seems to have resolved itself to the notion that adjustment means acquiescence to the optimum as portrayed by the status quo. Even this is a very ambitious program when it is realized that the efforts in this field look toward personal adjustments, social adjustments, and the achievement of a philosophy of life.

"Social Thought and Institutions" is discussed by Mary Elizabeth Mitchell and Sadie G. Young. They describe courses in the historical development of modern society and the introduction to contemporary civilization. It is gratifying to note that no attempt is made in these courses simply to acquaint the student with a tremendous mass of actual material, but that efforts are made to develop an understanding of social problems, and these problems are dealt with in a historical perspective, the emphasis being on analysis.

The chapter on "The Humanities Program," discussed by Robert E. Miller, emphasizes the cultural heritage of Western civilization through a study of the Greek, Roman, Medieval, Renaissance, and modern periods. Music, the arts, literature, philosophy and the dance of those periods are stressed.

In contrast to many of the courses which are now being developed, this program is still organized around chronological development.

Natural sciences are discussed by Ruth Breen, Richard H. Jordan, and Harry C. Trimble. They describe in turn the course in biological science, physical science, and mathematics. Perhaps the most interesting of these, from the point of newness, is the physical science course, which is organized on a block-and-gap type of program. An interesting portion of the chapter is the story which describes the process by which the faculty participating in this program were willing to discard the vast array of facts accumulated by the physical scientists in favor of a program which could be made meaningful to the beginning student.

The chapter on "The Library and General Education," by Louis Shores, and the chapter on "Audio-Visual Material and General Education" by Charles F. Hoban, Jr., describe the roles which these important auxiliary agencies play in effecting or implementing a program of general education. One is hard pressed to agree with a separation of audio-visual materials from the library and can only hope that this was done in the writing in order to involve more participants in the endeavor. The contribution of the library in the efforts of the faculty is enhanced by the emphasis on resource materials and reference books in abundance, rather than the customary reliance

upon reserve textbooks. These two chapters add to the mounting list of evidence which points to the fact that Florida State University is attempting to use all of its resources in an integrated manner to make effective a program of general education.

"Counseling and Clinical Services in General Education," by J. Broward Culpepper and Melvene D. Hardee, outlines a program which seems to approach the ideal. If the counseling program is to be an antidote to mass education, certainly the effort described by this chapter is necessary. This program is divided into four areas: educational counseling; personal and social guidance; health counseling; and vocational guidance and placement. The fact that this program has accepted the philosophy of general education and is devoted to furthering the objectives of the institution should be of immeasurable assistance in the attaining of these objectives.

The book proper is concluded by a chapter by President Campbell entitled "Good Teachers: The Key to General Education." The title of the chapter is self-explanatory and the thought contained therein reprieves Part II. Were it not for the

inclusion of this chapter, one might be easily led to believe that the proper organization and structuring of a general education program was all that was needed to achieve the objectives. That it is not, is patently obvious.

The value of this book is enhanced by two appendices. Appendix A gives the reader a total view of the specifics which are involved in Part II. It gives current information appearing in the college catalogue concerning the courses mentioned above. Appendix B is a bibliography in general education covering the years 1940-1948. Although it is not a bibliography with critical comments, it does afford the reader a well-organized body of bibliographical material which is always of assistance.

The editors of this book have done their work faithfully in that it appears as an integrated body of material, rather than a hodgepodge, which is sometimes the result of the work of collaborating authors. It is a piece of work which can be commended for its high degree of objectivity and its appropriateness at a time when many institutions are seeking new solutions to old problems.

REED L. BUFFINGTON

Selected References

H. F. BRIGHT

Roberts, Andrew D. "Employer Survey — Basis for Curriculum Evaluation," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXV (November, 1950), 434-437.

In this article the usefulness of the employer survey is discussed. It is considered a means of making more efficient the educational program of the school and of developing good relations between the school and community.

In a survey of seventeen firms in Whittier, California, conducted by means of interviews, it was found that for students preparing for clerical positions the following attributes were of great importance.

First, personality factors were found to lead the list. Employers were agreed that the well-balanced, good-tempered individual could sometimes overcome even defects of training. The neat, clean and well-mannered individual who was able to get along with his fellow workers was universally esteemed. Initiative and responsibility were considered to be of great importance.

Second, the ability to follow spoken and written directions was often cited as lacking in unsatisfactory employees. Many could not read and use catalogs, instructional pamphlets, simple tax tables, and similar materials.

Third, legible handwriting was too infrequent in new employees. Price tags, sales slips, etc. could not be read.

Fourth, mastering of the fundamentals of arithmetic was considered by employers to be highly useful and often lacking. However, no employer made the point that fundamentals are sometimes best learned through advanced work and all insisted upon basic grounding in arithmetic. Spelling was considered vital and often lacking. Accuracy of typing was more highly prized than speed as would be expected.

It was felt by the writer that the survey had been useful both in its implications in curriculum emphasis and in its public relations aspects.

Johnson, B. Lamar. "The California Study of General Education." *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXV (October, 1950), 341-346.

In this article the direction of the study described outlines the progress already made in studying and planning for the development of general education in California.

The scope of the study is defined in terms of five objectives: (1) a critical analysis of personal and social needs common to all individuals; (2) the development of recommendations for curriculum changes; (3) the development of recommendations regarding teaching methods and materials; (4) the development of procedures in guidance for all students;

(5) the development of patterns for a comprehensive student activity program.

The General Education Study started as a six-weeks workshop at U.C.L.A. during the summer of 1950. Its work consisted in first, defining general education and second, listing desirable student competencies. According to the findings of the workshop, general education should help each student increase his competence in citizenship, moral living, expression, mathematical and mechanical skills, critical thinking, understanding of the cultural heritage, understanding environmental factors, maintaining health and social adjustment, sharing satisfactory family life, achieving vocational adjustment and developing creative activities.

It is pointed out in the present article that the biggest job of all — that of describing the above goals in terms of specific behavior — must be left to the individual faculty as it works out its general education program. The function of the study staff in developing the program is described as one of encouraging and stimulating work in the individual colleges. Problems identified so far in the study include the following:

1. How may drop outs be reduced in junior colleges?
2. How may community study be used to vitalize the development of general education in a college?
3. How can terminal-technical students be fitted into a general education program?
4. What kind of general education

is best for transfer students?

5. Can social studies courses be improved by a different approach?
6. How can the synthesis of communication skills be carried on?
7. How can appreciation of the arts be developed?
8. How can science be taught from the general education standpoint?
9. How can psychology, sociology and anthropology be synthesized?
10. How may preparation for family life be improved?
11. How may counseling services be improved?
12. How may organization, development and teaching of general education courses be improved?
13. How may extra-class activities contribute more to general education?
14. How may evaluation techniques be set up?
15. How can small colleges develop general education?

It is a little difficult to think of any problem of education in general which is not now embraced as a province of general education according to the study described in this article. It seems that the participants have not made up their minds to accept their own definition of general education as that which is needed by all individuals for they make a distinction between general education for the transfer student and general education for the terminal student. Thus apparently they are evolving special types of general education.

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